

University of Montana

## ScholarWorks at University of Montana

---

Graduate Student Theses, Dissertations, &  
Professional Papers

Graduate School

---

2000

### The relationship between individual teachers' conflict styles and perceptions of school culture

Gail D. Aaberge  
*The University of Montana*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.umt.edu/etd>

**Let us know how access to this document benefits you.**

---

#### Recommended Citation

Aaberge, Gail D., "The relationship between individual teachers' conflict styles and perceptions of school culture" (2000). *Graduate Student Theses, Dissertations, & Professional Papers*. 10601.  
<https://scholarworks.umt.edu/etd/10601>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at ScholarWorks at University of Montana. It has been accepted for inclusion in Graduate Student Theses, Dissertations, & Professional Papers by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks at University of Montana. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@mso.umt.edu](mailto:scholarworks@mso.umt.edu).

## **INFORMATION TO USERS**

**This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.**

**The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.**

**In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.**

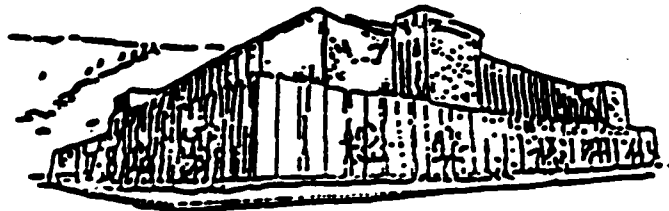
**Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.**

**Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.**

**Bell & Howell Information and Learning  
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA  
800-521-0600**

**UMI<sup>®</sup>**





Maureen and Mike  
**MANSFIELD LIBRARY**

The University of **MONTANA**

---

Permission is granted by the author to reproduce this material in its entirety,  
provided that this material is used for scholarly purposes and is properly cited in  
published works and reports.

**\*\* Please check "Yes" or "No" and provide signature \*\***

Yes, I grant permission

No, I do not grant permission

☒   
☐

Author's Signature Gail Decker

Date May 29, 2000

Any copying for commercial purposes or financial gain may be undertaken only with  
the author's explicit consent.



**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS' CONFLICT STYLES  
AND PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL CULTURE**

by

**Gail D. Aaberge**

**B.A., University of Montana, 1970**

**M.Ed., The University of Montana, 1991**

**Presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements**

**for the degree of**


**Doctor of Education**

**The University of Montana**

**2000**

Approved by:

  
Chairperson

  
Dean, Graduate School of Education

6-13-2000  
Date

**UMI Number: 9971865**

**Copyright 2000 by  
Aaberge, Gail Diane**

**All rights reserved.**

**UMI<sup>®</sup>**

---

**UMI Microform 9971865**

**Copyright 2000 by Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company.**

**All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against  
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.**

---

**Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company  
300 North Zeeb Road  
P.O. Box 1346  
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346**

**The Relationship Between Individual Teachers' Conflict Styles and Perceptions of School Culture (107 pp.)**

Director: Roberta D. Evans, Ed.D. *RDE*

This study examined the relationship between individual teachers' conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture. It further compared the teachers' and the principal's perceptions of the school's culture. Elementary teachers from nine schools in the Northwestern states of Montana, Idaho, and Washington were surveyed in a sample of 150 respondents, including nine principals. All schools in the sample had been involved in a school improvement initiative for more than one year.

The Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998) assessed each teacher's conflict style as being that of either Collaboration, Accommodation, Compromise, Competition, or Avoidance. The Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989) measured the teachers' and principals' perceptions of school culture, placing the culture into one of three types: Constructive, Passive/Defensive, or Aggressive/Defensive. The data were categorized, ranked, and analyzed identifying relative consistencies. A Chi-Square statistical test found significance at the level of  $p < .0001$ .

The results indicated a statistically significant relationship between the teachers' conflict styles and their perceptions of school culture. A significant relationship also existed between the teachers' perceptions and the principal's perception of the school's culture.

Results from this research yielded the following conclusions:

1. Overwhelmingly (96%), teachers experienced a high degree of satisfaction in their schools, within their perception of the school's culture identified as Constructive (collaborative). They believed that involvement in the school improvement initiative promoted this collaborative culture.
2. Teachers with a Collaboration conflict style constituted 74% of the total sample, indicating both high assertiveness and high cooperation levels.
3. Principals in all nine schools perceived their school's culture to be Constructive, resulting in a high correlation with the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture.
4. A positive relationship existed between the individual teachers' conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture.



## **Dedication**

**This endeavor is dedicated to my grandmother, Myrtle Jeanette Midge, who from the beginning, embodied for me what it meant to be a teacher in the fullest sense and a learner for a lifetime, and to my father, Erick Oliver Aaberge, who inspired and motivated me to reach beyond all challenges. To my family and children, Tyrone, Bart, and Erikka, whose encouragement and support has meant everything to me, I also dedicate this work.**

## **Acknowledgments**

Sincere and deep appreciation is expressed to Dr. Roberta Evans, committee Chair, for her patience, hearty encouragement, and unfailing faith in my work and me. Her professional advice has spanned ten years through two programs and provided excellent direction and example for which I will always be grateful. The committee of Dr. Dean Sorenson, Dr. William McCaw, Dr. Debra Yerkes, and Dr. Merle Farrier deserve special thanks for their tremendous support and valuable advice, including the statistical expertise, time and patience graciously shared by Dr. Merle Farrier.

This accomplishment owes its existence to the Cohort 1 members and the entire Department of Educational Leadership, where inspiration and inquiry, collaboration and camaraderie were shared for three years. They provided the necessary support and strength to realize this goal. A personal thank you is extended to Jodi Moreau for her contributions at every turn.

Without the cooperation of many educators, this work would not have been realized. Special thanks to Superintendents Dennis Williams, Jacob Block, and Dan Haugen for their understanding and generosity, and to the superintendents, principals and teachers of the nine schools who graciously provided me the opportunity to conduct my research. The talent shared and time given by E. Kari Aaberge Thorpe to assist me with technology needs has left me greatly indebted to her and respectful of her gifts and expertise.

Special consideration and gratitude belong to my mother, stepfather, sisters, brother, and aunt, whose faith and encouragement have sustained me throughout this effort. Without their confidence and loving support, this would not have been possible.

## **Table of Contents**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>Chapter 1. Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Statement of the Problem</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Significance of the Study</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Purpose of the Study</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Assumptions</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Limitations of the Study</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>Delimitations of the Study</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>Definition of Terms</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>Chapter 2. Review of Related Literature</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>Climate and Culture as Constructs</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>Similarities of Culture and Climate as Concepts</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>Evolution as Separate Constructs</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>Climate in Organizations</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>Evolution of the School Climate Concept</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>School Climate</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>Definitions of Culture</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>Culture in Organizations</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>School Culture</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>School Culture Norms</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>Collaborative School Cultures</b>	<b>30</b>

Educational Change	32
Conflict in Organizations	36
Conflict Styles	38
Mediation	40
Collaboration	40
Summary	42
Chapter 3. Methodology	44
Research Design	44
Population and Sample	44
Sampling Procedures	45
Instrumentation	45
Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory	46
Organizational Culture Inventory	46
Procedures	50
Treatment of the Data	50
Chapter 4. Research Findings	52
Introduction	52
Procedures for Analysis of Data	53
Analysis of the Data	54
Research Questions	62
Summary of Results	63
Chapter 5. Summary, Findings, Recommendations, and Conclusions	65
Summary	65

Findings	67
Recommendations	69
Implications for Further Research	69
Implications for Educational Leaders	71
Conclusions	72
Appendices	76
Appendix A – Letter to Superintendents	77
Appendix B – Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory	79
Appendix C – Organizational Culture Inventory	83
Appendix D – Letters of Permission	88
References	97

## **List of Tables**

	<b>Page</b>
Table 1: <b>Teachers' Dominant Culture Type</b>	<b>54</b>
Table 2: <b>Dominant Conflict Style of Teachers With Culture Type 1</b>	<b>55</b>
Table 3: <b>Idaho Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type</b>	<b>56</b>
Table 4: <b>Montana Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type</b>	<b>57</b>
Table 5: <b>Washington Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type</b>	<b>58</b>
Table 6: <b>Composite of Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type</b>	<b>59</b>
Table 7: <b>Correlation of Conflict Style and Culture Type and Principals' Perceptions of School Culture – Idaho, Montana, Washington</b>	<b>60</b>

## **List of Figures**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>Figure 1: Teachers' Conflict Styles</b>	<b>61</b>
<b>Figure 2: Teachers' and Principals' Perceptions of School Culture</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>Figure 3: Aaberge Model of School Culture, Community, and Climate</b>	<b>73</b>

## Chapter One

### Introduction

School reform, restructuring, and school improvement efforts require comprehensive changes. Often, these changes address the demand for accountability and support results-driven education (Schmoker, 1996). Change initiatives that provide the greatest opportunity for meeting these challenges involve aspects of the entire system of schooling. Within that system exists the learning organization, supported by an evolving school culture. School culture encapsulates the patterns of shared beliefs, attitudes and values prevalent in organizations. These are evident in symbols, ceremonies and celebrations; therefore, they appear in behavioral regularities by members of the organization (Schein, 1992; Sergiovanni, 1991; Stewart, Prebble, & Duncan, 1997). Moreover, they are deeply imbedded in the organizational context. As Deal and Peterson (1999, p. 4) asserted, “Cultural patterns are highly enduring, have a powerful impact on performance, and shape the ways people think, act, and feel.”

Directing systemic energies toward the creation and maintenance of a learning community is one aspect of leadership (Sergiovanni, 1996). In creating the learning community, the leader must recognize, as Costa and Garmston (1994) have cautioned, that “human beings operate with a rich variety of cultural, personal, and cognitive style differences, which can be resources for learning.” Based on those differences, Sparks and Hirsh asserted in their 1997 work, “It is now clear that success for all students depends upon both the learning of individual school employees and improvements in the capacity of the organization to solve problems and renew itself” (p. 12). Deal and Peterson concurred,



adding, “Numerous studies of school change have identified the organizational culture as critical to the successful improvement of teaching and learning” (1999, p. 5).

In examining structural conflict, Robert Fritz (1989) concluded that unintended effects resulted from poorly understood, continuing structural conflicts that proceed as dominant forces in our lives. Fritz further defined this structure as that which consists of fundamental parts related both to each other and to the whole. Fullan (1991), Senge (1990), and Schein (1992) expanded Fritz’s definition. They viewed the sensitivity of a system experiencing any change as a dynamic interaction affecting parts either favorably or unfavorably. Clearly, some efforts may result in improvements, while others may simply produce negative consequences otherwise unintended. Sparks and Hirsh (1997) offered an example of these systemic impacts by observing that an increase in graduation requirements, while perceived as an improvement, may increase the dropout rate if consideration for how the change influences other parts of the system is not part of the equation. Understanding both the internal and external impacts upon structures is essential for educational leaders, particularly due to the nature of their roles and the inherent power that comes with the position of leadership. As Fritz (1989) argued, it is because of structures that power in organizations is what ultimately enables leaders to have an influence on human behavior. The dynamic tensions created from this influence could be utilized to improve performance, in Fritz’s judgment.

Wilmot and Hocker’s work (1998) emphasized that interpersonal conflict is natural and can arise in all kinds of settings. Hendricks (1991) likewise termed conflict a “passionate pull inherent in the relationships of life” (p. 1). However, just because conflict

is a part of organizational life, this does not mean that its unresolved issues are beneficial. Quite the contrary, unresolved conflict has been shown to undermine the best efforts at school reform and restructuring, depleting the energies of teachers and principals alike. As Wilmot and Hocker put it, “Unresolved conflict has tremendous negative impact” (p. 4). Schein (1992) concurred and related this finding to organizational culture, adding, “If there is conflict . . . such conflict can undermine group performance. On the other hand, if the environmental context is changing, such conflict can be a potential source of adaptation and new learning” (p. 68). In a similar meld of culture with the undercurrent of conflict, Deal and Peterson (1999) later described this dynamic tension in terms of the educational leader’s perspective as follows:

One of the most significant roles of leaders (and of leadership) is the creation, encouragement, and refinement of the symbols and symbolic activity that give meaning to the organization . . . . Effective school leaders are always alert to the deeper issues agitating beneath a seemingly rational veneer of activity . . . . In effect, they are asking three basic questions: (a) What is the culture of the school now? (b) What can I do to strengthen aspects of the culture that already fit my idea of an ideal school? and (c) What can be done to change or reshape the culture? (pp. 10, 85).

### Statement of the Problem

Conflict styles have been analyzed and researched from a broad array of perspectives. The primary focus of literature examining conflict styles in the business arena

has been conflict management (Yarbrough & Wilmot, 1995). Interpersonal conflict and its resolution, however, have been dominant in communication and family research (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998). In education, much has been written about the identification of the characteristic problems inherent in educational change, and suggestions for resolution have been made in terms of a systems approach in dealing with those problems (Senge, 1990). While recommendations for resolving conflict abound, these amount to lists of “tactics” and “strategies,” with little empirical research examining the underlying issues of organizational conflict. Specifically, there has been no research to date examining the conflict styles of individuals in schools and their potential relationships to differing perspectives of organizational culture.

The prime setting for conflict in any organization involves times wherein substantial change is encountered. Indeed, change has been the focus of much research across many specialized areas. Dominant in the field of education are the perspectives provided by Michael Fullan and Andy Hargreaves. Michael Fullan (1993) described educational change as “ubiquitous and relentless, forcing itself on us at every turn” (vii). He believed that the most crucial understanding is not a matter of finding a solution or solving the problem of unrelenting change, but learning how to be proactive and productive in view of its constancy. Hargreaves (1997) expressed the importance of recognizing the emotional dimensions of educational change, and claimed that if they are ignored, they will manifest themselves in resentments, sabotage, burnout, frustration, and a disregard for the passions of teaching and learning. Fullan (1997) explained that trying to control resistance to change is futile, whereas “finding a way to reconcile positive and

negative emotion is the key to releasing energy for change” (p. 223).

The current literature in this area has defined a critical element of school cultures and learning communities to be collaboration, or the act of teaming together to facilitate teaching and learning as well as to navigate the continuous improvement path of educational change. Many authors continually assert that positive relationships within the learning community and the school culture are paramount for successful collaboration and are also foundational to the creation of an environment for teaching and learning (Burnham & Hord, 1993; Caine & Caine, 1997; Costa & Garmston, 1994; Costa & Liebmann, 1997; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fullan, 1993; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Garmston & Wellman, 1999; Marshak, 1994; Moscovici & Alfaro-Varela, 1993; Peterson & Brietzke, 1994; Uhl & Squires, 1994). Similarly, many suggest that the successful creation of learning communities supported by strong school cultures is dependent upon the interaction and interrelatedness of the teachers, students, and the principal of the school (Costa & Garmston, 1994; Costa & Liebmann, 1997; Fullan, 1993; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Hargreaves, 1997; Lezotte, 1997; Sergiovanni, 1991; Wheatley, 1994). Garmston and Wellman (1999) further elaborated on the import of collaboration and collegiality, viewing them to be the norm in high performing and improving schools:

It does not happen by chance; it needs to be structured, taught, and learned.

Developing collaborative cultures is the work of leaders who realize that a collection of superstar teachers working in isolation cannot produce the same results as interdependent colleagues who share and develop professional practices together. From such interactions come growth and learning for teachers, teams,

and schools (p. 18).

Conflict style develops over a person's lifetime of experience and is also and outgrowth of genetic predispositions such as family background and personal philosophy. Further, Wilmot and Hocker (1998) concluded that "Constructive conflict management depends on the ability to choose from a wide repertoire of styles and tactics to support a specific desired outcome" (p. 111). Conflict management, therefore, emerged from one's ability to understand the issues at hand, then seek resolution through an adaptive, appropriate response. Certainly, constructive conflict action (management) required decision-making, shared responsibility, listening, and a deliberate investment in relationships (Hendricks, 1991).

Although Keenan (1984) and Schilling (1988) investigated the relationship of conflict styles and school climate, Rousseau's (1990) examination of culture assessments revealed that researchers have confused culture with climate. Rousseau contended that climate and culture are distinct constructs. School cultures where learning occurs through participation and engagement in common activities have created new questions about conflict – both that which occurs in organizations as well as conflict at the interpersonal level (National Institute on Educational Governance, Finance, Policy Making, and Management, 1998). Once again, the dynamic between individual approaches to conflict and the organizational response further begs the question posed by this research: Is there a correlation between teachers' individual conflict styles and their perceptions of school culture, bearing empirical investigation?

### Significance of the Study

Several issues at the periphery of this investigation established the context for the study. It is important to note them prior to stating the significance of this work, insofar as they served as foundational considerations. First, as instructional leaders, school principals shoulder the responsibility for promoting “best practices” in their schools. Building a learning community while fostering teacher professional development is paramount to accomplishing this task. As Thomas Sergiovanni noted, “This evolution to community provides the school not only with a distinctive character, but with a defense of integrity that allows the school to develop a distinctive competence” (1996, p. 47). Burnham and Hord concurred, adding, “The leader’s responsibility is to ensure the accomplishment of the organization’s mission and the success of the people in the organization” (1993, p. 86).

Finally, it is critical that the learning community be the kind of place where leaders are committed to understanding the widespread perceptions in the organization, as well as the necessity for collaboration and leadership. As international speaker and leadership consultant Peter Duncan counseled:

Your school is the sum total of the perceptions people bring to it. It does not exist otherwise. If the school has different views about what the community expects, then the teachers are going to have different views. What the school is to us and what the school does for us is based on perceptions. Collaboration is to try to see how we can get through our perceptions to some commonalities. If we begin to look at how the organization works, then we can get to the challenges. The school

learns as an organization to be a more effective community. True community is collaboration and how the organization works. The test of a community is how it resolves its differences and moves on. Leadership determines what you will perceive. Leadership is about vision. Leadership is about how others see this organization and how its resources are used. You (the leader) are the embodiment of the organization (April 10-11, 2000, Ninepipes, MT).

His words were reminiscent of Schein's (1992) earlier work linking leadership and culture, as follows:

Culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin in that leaders first create cultures when they create groups and organizations. Once cultures exist, they determine the criteria for leadership and thus determine who will or will not be a leader. But if cultures become dysfunctional, it is the unique function of leadership to perceive the functional and dysfunctional elements of the existing culture and to manage cultural evolution and change in such a way that the group can survive in a changing environment. The bottom line for leaders is that if they do not become conscious of the cultures in which they are embedded, those cultures will manage them. Cultural understanding is desirable for all of us, but it is essential to leaders if they are to lead. (p. 15)

These aforementioned issues, then, bring us to the purpose of this research.

Whereas previous researchers have either investigated conflict management in organizations or analyzed the relationship between conflict management and school climate, no one has heretofore examined individual teachers' conflict styles and their

relationship to school culture. This investigation will determine what, if any, relationship exists between individual teachers' conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture. Determination of a relationship between the principal's perception and the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture will also be a component of this study. Knowing whether these relationships exist would enable school leaders to foster and maintain school cultures emphasizing collaboration. Through this level of interaction, various stakeholders could conceivably work toward a mutual purpose (McCaw, 1999). It is further anticipated that this study will also contribute to the important research available on school culture, learning communities, educational change, effective schools, interpersonal conflict, and conflict management. These areas represent the heart and soul of effective leadership.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether a relationship exists between teachers' individual conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture. Identifying the principal's perception of the school culture will be invaluable in understanding the school's leadership, the school's culture, and its relationship to individual teachers' conflict styles. Measuring the teachers' conflict styles and their assessed perceptions categorizing the school's culture will provide data for correlational statistical procedures, thereby enabling relationships to be assessed.



### **Research Questions**

The foundation of this study was built by data analysis responding to the following research questions:

**Research Question I:** Is there a statistically significant relationship between individual teachers' conflict styles as measured by the Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory and teachers' perceptions of the school's culture as measured by the Organizational Culture Inventory?

**Research Question II:** Does a correlation exist between the teachers' perceptions of the school culture and the principal's perception of the school culture as measured by the Organizational Culture Inventory?

The data will be tested via the following null hypotheses:

**Ho<sub>1</sub>** - There will be no statistically significant relationship between teachers' individual conflict styles and their perceptions of the school culture.

**Ho<sub>2</sub>** – There will be no statistically significant correlation between the principal's perception of the school's culture and the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture.

### **Assumptions**

For the purposes of this investigation, the following assumptions have been made:

1. The respondents answered the survey and questions truthfully.
2. Conflict is inherent in the change process and inevitable in the school as an

organization.

3. School improvement initiatives create opportunities for members of a school culture to practice collaboration.
4. Individual teachers will utilize different conflict styles to manage conflict.
5. Individual conflict styles can be identified.
6. Elementary schools have individual school cultures.
7. The culture of a school can be measured.

#### Limitations of the Study

For the purposes of this inquiry, the following limitations exist:

1. This study determined the relationships among three variables: (a) conflict styles of individual teachers, (b) teachers' perceptions of the school's culture, and (c) the principals' perceptions of the school's culture.
2. The sample of schools was participating in a systemic school reform initiative for school improvement for more than one academic year.
3. Only elementary schools with at least 16 certified teachers were surveyed.

#### Delimitations of the Study

Delimitations intended to provide parameters for this study were:

1. This study was restricted to schools within districts participating in a systemic school reform initiative for more than one year.
2. The principal of each of the schools surveyed was assigned to that school

for at least one year.

3. The teachers of each of the schools surveyed participated for at least one year in a systemic school reform initiative.
4. This study was restricted to the surveying of schools in the Northwest United States inclusive of Washington, Idaho, and Montana.
5. This study did not involve high school or middle school teachers.

### Definitions of Terms

The following terms were defined for use in this study:

Change. The learning organization's continual process of organizational growth and investment in the improvement of the quality of thinking, capacity for reflection and team learning, and the ability to develop shared visions and shared understandings (Fullan, 1993, Kaiser, 1995). Educational change often initiates school reform, restructuring, or school improvements processes for organizational growth.

Change agent or facilitator. An individual who attempts to influence others in a direction that is deemed desirable by a change agency is a change agent. The change agent is a facilitator who supports, assists, nurtures, encourages, persuades, or pushes people to change (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, & Hall, 1987, Rogers, 1983).

Climate. Climate is the organizational "personality" of the school and the environmental quality within an organization (Halpin & Croft, 1993, Taguiri, 1968).

Collaboration. Collaboration in a learning community is true community and characteristic of how the organization works. It is the analysis, evaluation, and

experimentation in concert with colleagues, and basically, the attempt to get through our perspectives to some commonalities (Duncan, April, 2000, Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996).

Conflict. “Conflict is just energy in the system, nothing more, nothing less; it is the other face of community. Individuals construct their own meaning of conflict” Garmston & Wellman, 1999, p. 184).

Conflict Style. Wilmot and Hocker (1998) defined conflict style as “patterned responses or clusters of behavior that people use in conflict. Tactics are individual moves people make to carry out their general approach. Styles describe the big picture, whereas tactics describe the specific communicative pieces of the big picture” (p. 111).

Culture. School or organizational culture is the shared understandings people in an organization have about how it works and about how they work in the organization. Culture represents the basic mindset, attitudes, values, and perceptions that individuals have about critical areas of life and living within a group based on their thoughts and beliefs (Burnham & Hord, 1993, Maehr & Midgley, 1996).

Leadership. Leadership determines what the teachers and others will perceive within the task of communicating vision, values, and organizational beliefs of the culture. Leadership is the constant shaping and cultivation of culture with the principal as one critical source for the change processes which sustain school culture (Dufour & Eaker, 1998; Duncan, April, 2000; Maehr & Midgley, 1996; Wheatley, 1994).

Learning Community or Organization. The Basic School is a community of learning, a purposeful place with a clear and vital mission . . . . All members of the community are empowered to fulfill the school’s mission, and it is here that the principal’s

role is absolutely crucial (Boyer, 1995, p. 71).

**Systemic school reform initiative.** The process whereby teachers and administrators acquire new instructional knowledge, skills, and attitudes regarding the purpose of schools and what is expected of students. The expectation is the alteration of instructional behavior in a way that benefits students, and the goal is improved performance by all in the organization. A school improvement initiative is a comprehensive approach to change and addresses all aspects of the system toward a manageable set of outcomes that are valued by all. Teachers and administrators collaborate with peers, researchers, and their own students at making sense of the teaching and learning process (Sparks & Hirsh, 1997).

## Chapter Two

### Review of Related Literature

This chapter provides a review of the literature of two major areas: (a) school culture and (b) conflict styles. Related topics such as school climate, collaborative cultures, conflict and educational change were included to provide a more comprehensive perspective. An overview and comparison of the constructs of culture and climate in organizations and schools has also been presented.

The evolution of the findings about organizational climate and the management of conflict from the research by Keenan (1984) and Schilling (1988) to the present concepts of organizational culture and views of conflict management in schools served as a primary focus for this review. The investigation of the concept of school culture supported by the belief of Reichers and Schneider (1990) that study of organizational culture “could be enhanced by the use of quantitative methods” (p. 25), resulted in a secondary focus.

#### Climate and Culture as Constructs

The concepts of school climate and school culture have been closely associated by some researchers (Hansen & Childs, 1998; Poole, 1991; Smey-Richman, 1991, Smey-Richman & Barkley, 1990). Hansen and Childs (1998) illustrated this association by stating, “Occasionally, however, we may visit a school that reveals a consistent and constant effort to create a desirable culture, a climate of support and encouragement, or warmth and acceptance--a place where students and teachers like to be” (pp. 14-5). Purkey and Smith (1982), who likewise determined climate to be a part of culture, stated,

“We have argued that an academically effective school is distinguished by its culture: a structure, process, and climate of values and norms that channel staff and students in the direction of successful teaching and learning” (p. 67).

Kanpol (1990) saw climate and culture as an inverse relationship: “Teachers and principals must work together on the school’s institutional and cultural climate by using dialogue and critique.” Barbara Smey-Richman (1991) likewise placed culture as a subset of the climate construct. Peterson (1997) addressed the aspects of school climate for school improvement. However, in defining leadership as a critical element in the formation of school climate, Peterson assumed the translation of culture for climate in emphasizing how the literature overwhelmingly identifies the principal as a major factor in the determination of the school’s culture (p. 37).

In contrast, Poole (1991) separated the two concepts by defining school culture as “the collective vision of what ought to be,” and school climate as “the way things are.” Sergiovanni, in 1987, spoke of school climate as an aspect of the development of human resources, which also included aspects of school improvement and organizational effectiveness. Then, in 1996, he began to refer to culture as a metaphor adopted from business organizations for a frame of reference for schools. Calling attention to the importance of culture in organizations, Poole (1991) used Alfonso’s (1986) description of culture as “the unseen supervisor” when stating that culture is what “keeps schools working toward their goals, determines standards and values, and specifies rewards and sanctions for behavior” (p. 8). The relationship between culture and climate stands out in the research as a question of effectiveness and influence in the organization (Reichers & Schneider, 1990).

Similarities of Climate and Culture as Concepts. Reichers and Schneider (1990)

proposed some similarities with the concepts of climate and culture within the definition of something an organization has: “Climate is shared perceptions of organizational policies, practices, and procedures, both formal and informal” (p. 22). They identified this similarity in the organizational members’ perceptions not only of the way things are, but also in the personal meaning attached. Climate researchers recognized the importance of shared perceptions and personal meanings, which parallel the qualities defined in school culture.

Reichers and Schneider (1990) agreed with Schein (1992) that climate was a product of culture, but also claimed that the two concepts overlapped and were viewed as reciprocal processes (p. 24): “Culture exists at a higher level of abstraction than climate, and climate is a manifestation of culture” (p. 29). Henderson and Milstein (1996) discussed climate and culture as separate entities within the organization: “Organizations have distinct climates that can be felt, much like the weather . . . At a deeper level, organizations also have cultures, or strongly held belief systems, . . . An organization’s culture is less obvious than its climate, but it forms the foundations of how things are done at the school” (p. 53).

Deal and Peterson (1993) described how principals have used terms like “climate” to understand illusive but powerful patterns and forces in their schools. Taking a term from anthropology, school culture became the label for these ethereal influences. They concluded, “Culture describes the character of a school and reflects deeper themes and patterns of core values, common beliefs, and regular traditions that develop over time” (pp. 89-90).



Evolution as Separate Constructs. Reichers and Schneider (1990) demonstrated the evolution of climate and culture as separate constructs. Both concepts existed in the fields of industrial and organizational psychology and organizational behavior, overlapping in their evolution for about ten years (p. 31). However, culture is more likely displaced from anthropology, and is therefore a borrowed concept (pp. 9-19).

Schilling (1988) and Halpin and Croft (1963) noted the origin of the concept of organizational climate attributed to an attempt by Argyris (1958) to organize reciprocal variables comprising organization. Reichers and Schneider (1990) disagreed, however, placing the origin of the climate concept back in 1939 when Lewin, Lippitt, and White examined patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created “social climates,” focusing on the relationship between leadership style and climate. Climate became the “meaningful pattern” resulting from the interaction of individuals. The broad definition also included group morale. Schilling (1988) stated that Argyris’ model provided “knowledge upon which to plan the impact of future changes” (p. 57).

Reichers and Schneider (1990) determined that the examination of the concept of organizational culture throughout the 1980’s was conducted in application to various organizational problems as opposed to actually evaluating the construct itself. “If organizational culture as a construct is to gain and maintain significance among researchers and practitioners,” they wrote, “then the pattern of relationships that exists between culture and other variables of interest must be determined” (p. 27). Culture’s value as a “new” variable may lie in the degree to which it captures organizational attributes that researchers agree are there (p. 29).

### Climate in Organizations

In 1984, Dianne Keenan studied the relationship between organizational climate and management styles of conflict as perceived by teachers and principals. Keenan qualified conflict as a natural phenomenon and a constant in organizations, requiring extensive management from administrators. Whereas conflicts resulted in challenges to relationships between individuals of an organization, Keenan noted that conflict, when viewed as positive, stimulated change. The effectiveness of an organization depended upon the assessment of the conflict situations. The influence of organizational climate upon organizational conflict required observation and awareness. Keenan described the administrator as influencing the climate by his/her administrative style and values, and ultimately influencing conflict through either a productive or destructive posture (Keenan, 1984, pp. 1-5, 43-5).

Using the Profile of a School and the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II (Rahim, 1983) assessment instruments, Keenan (1984) found no statistically significant correlation between the principal's and the teachers' perceptions of organizational climate and the principal's and the teachers' perceptions of management styles of conflict. Additionally, her research found no statistically significant correlation between the organizational climate and the management style of conflict as perceived by principals. Teachers perceived no significant effect upon organizational climate with four of the five management styles of conflict used by the principal. The five management styles of conflict measured by the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II were (a) integrating, (b) obliging, (c) dominating, (d) avoiding, and (e) compromising. The teachers did perceive a relationship between the integrating style of managing conflict

and the organizational climate of a school. Keenan reviewed how the integrating style involved teachers in decision-making, and suggested that teacher involvement may have had a positive impact on organizational climate of a school (pp. 76-9).

Keenan (1984) recommended further study of organizational climate to examine strategies for establishing effectiveness in organizational climate and managing conflict. She also emphasized increased teacher involvement for strengthening relationships as one strategy for the management of conflict (pp. 81-2). Her conclusions contributed to the newer concept of culture and its importance in the effectiveness of an organization. The suggestions of increased teacher involvement for strengthening relationships foreshadowed the elements found in definitions of school culture.

Tagiuri (1968) described the concept of climate as an environmental quality within an organization. Smey-Richman (1991) and Smey-Richman & Barkley (1990) elaborated on Tagiuri's environmental theme, outlining its four dimensions: ecology, milieu, culture, and social system. Smey-Richman stated that ecology referred to building characteristics, size, and finances, while milieu referred to teacher and student characteristics. Her research suggested that variables with the school culture and the social system dimensions of the climate construct do influence student outcomes, whereas the ecology and milieu variables of the construct show low relationships to student outcomes.

### Evolution of the School Climate Concept

Data were gathered in the late 1960's with assessments of climate as a function of work motivation and productivity. Reichers and Schneider (1990) recognized McGregor

who, as early as 1960, inferred that climate was something managers create. Likewise, Litwin and Stringer (1968) focused on the concept of climate as affecting achievement, affiliation and power. In 1963, Halpin and Croft contributed this definition: "Climate can be construed as the organizational 'personality' of the school" (p. 1). He noted that faculty contributed characteristics in the school's climate, including (a) disengagement, (b) hindrance, (c) esprit, and (d) intimacy. The principal's behavior characteristics included (a) aloofness, (b) production emphasis, (c) thrust, and (d) consideration. Halpin and Croft (1963) created a continuum for schools from open to closed climates using these characteristics. From his Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), an open climate school scored at least one standard deviation lower on disengagement, hindrance, aloofness, and production emphasis and at least one standard deviation higher on esprit, thrust, and consideration (p. 74).

### School Climate

Schilling (1988) saw the concept of climate extend to schools with Halpin and Croft's description in 1963 of principals' or teachers' ability to discern the "atmosphere of the place," leading to the statement, "Personality is to the individual what organizational climate is to the organization" (Halpin & Croft, 1963, p. 1). Schilling examined the relationship among the conflict management styles used by elementary principals and the organizational climate of an elementary school. Her review of the literature qualified climate as a key factor in influencing the acceptance of innovations and the motivation of participants (pp. 60-1). The findings of her study indicated that conflict management strategies used by elementary principals do have an effect on some

of the indicators of school organizational climate. Also, supportive behavior by the principal appeared to result in more open teacher behaviors (pp. 195-6). Schilling indicated that the assessment of school climate was important to more effectively solve problems and handle conflicts, provide support, give feedback, and foster an open atmosphere for discussion (p. 61).

Peterson (1997) reviewed the literature in addressing four variables which contribute to a positive school climate. Teacher efficacy, collegiality (promoted by the principal, shared decision making, and staff development), student achievement, and parent involvement were attributable to lasting, meaningful school reform. After a thorough assessment of strengths and weaknesses, the best chance of success was deemed to be dependent upon a collaborative effort to identify and solve school problems (pp. 41-2).

### Definitions of Culture

Marvin Bower was credited with describing cultural elements in 1966 as “the way we do things around here” (p. 22). As part of his culture observations, Sarason (1982) proposed, “Acculturation is directed to shaping a person’s definition of reality, not only what it is but what it should be” (p. 14). He continued, “That existing structure . . . culture defines the permissible ways in which goals and problems will be approached” (p. 27). Reichers and Schneider (1990) reviewed researchers’ definitions of culture and divided them into two categories based on Smircich’s (1983) distinction in the definition of culture between culture as something an organization is versus culture as something an organization has. The first definition yielded an exploratory approach and descriptions

about the structure of organizations. The second definition examined organizational cultures as systems. Culture was described as a “root metaphor” and organizations as “manifestations of human consciousness,” which opened the door for the subsequent investigations of the patterns, causes and effects of organizational culture (Smircich, 1983, pp. 347-8).

Newer definitions and understandings of organizational culture included an emphasis on effectiveness, behavior, and management of cultural change (Thompson & Luthans, 1990). Although Reichers and Schneider (1990) indicated that an acceptable definition of culture didn’t exist in 1990, they chose Schein’s definition of “learned responses to the group’s problems of survival and internal integration . . . subconscious, taken for granted, and shared by members of the social unit” (p. 23). They discovered in all definitions they examined, “the idea that culture is a common set of shared meanings or understandings about the group/organization and its problems, goals, and practices” (p. 23).

Deal and Kennedy (1982) wrote extensively about the characteristics of strong cultures. However, in contrast, a weak culture was defined simply as lacking some or all of the characteristics of a strong culture. In fact, weak cultures were deemed to be lacking clear values or beliefs. Members of a weak culture could not agree on which beliefs were most important, they differed as to which were the fundamental beliefs. The heroes were destructive, disruptive and ignored building a common understanding about what is important. Rituals were disorganized and contradictory. Deal and Kennedy concluded, “A culture gets in trouble when its people are chronically unhappy” (1982, pp. 135-6).

Robert Evans (1996) contributed an understanding about strong and weak school cultures in borrowing from writings on school culture that equated strong cultures as “good” and weak cultures as “negative.” Evans explained that efforts to identify the qualities of a “good” school were made in order to export these qualities to what might be considered weak school cultures. However, Evans explained that this approach overlooked the fact that healthy, positive cultures are as inflexible and resistant to change as the weak, negative cultures (p. 45). He stated, “There is considerable evidence that excellent organizations, those that achieve and sustain high levels of performance, do so in part because of their members’ unswerving commitment to their goals . . . . The stronger the culture, the more firmly it resists new influences” (p. 46). Evans (1996) affirmed the importance of teachers’ professional development and growth for influence and flexibility. The development of the organizational culture to facilitate change was also emphasized in this declaration: “Organizations must also contain a means for development so as not to become paralyzed” (p. 45).

Dufour and Eaker (1998) considered good cultures to be “strong, constantly cultivated cultures,” whereas bad cultures were considered “low maintenance” (p. 148). Attempts to protect the status quo comfort of a negative or bad culture apparently needed little attention, whereas a desired culture must be tended to prevent a bad culture from overtaking it. Energy needed to be focused on the vision. “Shaping culture is a never-ending task,” they observed. “Like a garden, a healthy culture requires constant cultivation” (p. 149).

A culture can emerge on agreements to disagree; on maintenance of ambiguity over certainty; and on norms of variety rather than order. “Key for the concept of culture is the importance of collective ideology, shared values and sentiments, and norms that define acceptable behavior. The actual substance of culture is, by contrast, less important. Thus, not all schools with strong cultures are characterized by ‘harmony,’” stated Thomas Sergiovanni (1991, p. 108).

Evans (1996) agreed with Deal and Kennedy (1982) that the stronger the culture, the harder it is to change. They summarized their findings with this declaration: “It all comes down to understanding the importance of working with people in any organization” (p. 18). Ultimately, they reasoned, “Culture, even roughly defined, has a very strong influence on a[n organization’s] behavior over time” (p. 129).

### Culture in Organizations

Literature of the 1980’s focused on the popular concept of culture for organizational effectiveness, managing culture and cultural change (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Reichers & Schneider, 1990, p. 28; Schein, 1992; Senge, 1990). Reichers and Schneider (1990) understood the importance of analyzing the influence of culture on human behavior in organizations (pp. 22-3). They believed that culture could add something beyond climate’s contribution in this respect, because culture is the next higher level of abstraction, capturing additional influences on behavior (pp. 28-9).

The review by Reichers’ and Schneider (1990) of writings on culture delineated the early 1980’s as the beginning of the study of culture in work organizations. Deal and Kennedy (1982) popularized ideas about culture in their work, describing culture in terms



of beliefs and practices, values, ceremonies and rituals. They further underscore the critical role for communications, through which leaders might articulate a shared philosophy stressing the importance of people in the organization.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) described the influence of the culture of an organization as follows:

Every business – in fact every organization – has a culture. Sometimes it is fragmented and difficult to read from the outside . . . sometimes the culture of an organization is very strong and cohesive; everyone knows the goals . . . and they are working for them. Whether weak or strong, culture has a powerful influence throughout an organization; it affects practically everything . . . Because of this impact, we think that culture also has a major effect on . . . success (p. 4-5).

In examining successful businesses, Deal and Kennedy recognized that the best organizations were those built by leaders who recognized the degree to which environment shaped the lives and productivity of the employees. They argued that strong cultures brought success as follows:

We think that people are a company's greatest resource, and the way to manage them is not directly by computer reports, but by the subtle cues of a culture. A strong culture is a powerful lever for guiding behavior . . . A strong culture is a system of informal rules that spells out how people are to behave most of the time . . . A strong culture enables people to feel better about what they do, so they are more likely to work harder (pp. 15-6).

Thompson and Luthans (1990) examined organizational culture in terms of cognitive and behavioral perspectives to better understand its dynamics. A behavioral

approach in viewing organizational culture supported the development of behavioral norms for individuals within the organization. With such norms, they demonstrated that culture could be influenced over time (pp. 340-1). Setting the stage for change in organizational culture may take five to ten years, Edgar Schein noted. He stated:

You cannot create a new culture. You can immerse yourself in studying a culture . . . until you understand it. Then you can propose new values, introduce new ways of doing things, and articulate new governing ideas . . . These actions set the stage for new behavior . . . Even then, you haven't changed culture; you've set the stage for the culture to evolve . . . In all processes of inquiry, the steps and precepts will gain value with the insight, thoughtfulness and flexibility of the people practicing them (1999, pp. 334-5).

### School Culture

Terrence Deal (1993) gave credit to Willard Waller for an identification of school culture as early as 1932:

Schools have a culture that is definitely their own. There are, in the school, complex rituals of personal relationships, a set of folkways, mores, and irrational sanctions, a moral code based upon them. There are games, which are sublimated wars, teams, and an elaborate set of ceremonies concerning them. There are traditions, and traditionalists waging their world-old battle against innovators.

There are laws and there is a problem of enforcing them. (Waller, 1932, p. 103)

From both ends of the 70's decade, Deal (1993) noted that Sarason in 1971, and Swidler in 1979 had independently proclaimed a similar insight. Deal recognized the similarities

of these observations as particularly intriguing, given that Waller studied traditional schools in 1932, and decades later, in 1979, Swidler studied alternative schools (p. 4). Nonetheless, their observations strikingly paralleled one another.

Swidler (1979) stated, “Watching teachers and students in free schools, I become convinced that culture in the sense of symbols, ideologies, and a legitimate language for discussing individual and group obligations provides the crucial substate on which new organizational forms can be erected” (p. viii). Deal (1993) noted Sarason’s (1982) depiction of these same behavioral regularities in Sarason’s words from 1971:

History and tradition have given rise to roles and relationships, to interlocking ideas, practices, values, and expectations that are the ‘givens’ not requiring thought or deliberation. These ‘givens’ (like other categories of thought) are far less the products of characteristics of individuals than they are a reflection of what we call the culture and its traditions . . . one cannot see culture or system the way one sees individuals. Culture and system are not concrete, tangible, visible things the way individuals are. (Deal, 1993, pp. 5-6)

Deal (1993) ultimately saw school culture as a robust concept transmitted from generation to generation. He embraced the idea that culture as a construct helps explain why classrooms and schools exhibit common and stable patterns across variable conditions. Meyer and Rowan (1983) asserted that culture internally gives meaning to instructional activity and provides a symbolic bridge between action and results. Externally, culture provides a symbolic façade that evokes faith and confidence among outside stakeholders. The depth of the culture construct, then, was described as “an all-encompassing tapestry of meaning” (Deal, 1993, p. 6).

Maehr and Midgley (1996) found it significant “that current theories of motivation, especially theories of learning and achievement, have moved to a social cognitive approach that not only specifies the role of perceptions in affecting motivation but provides guidelines for assessing these perceptions” (p. 68). They analyzed culture as:

Culture is a construct made up of the perceptions that individuals have about critical areas of life and living within a group . . . A broadly shared view in this regard is that individuals behave in response to and in terms of their perceptions, thoughts, and beliefs . . . The term culture puts stress on the shared nature of the perceptions: that a school, for example, tends to reflect a certain view of learning. And so, we will examine how individual perceptions make a difference in the lives of individual students, faculty, and others, but we will also consider these individual perceptions in the aggregate as an index that may distinguish schools, classrooms, teachers, subgroups of students, and other distinguishable groups defined by those who are more the actors in our studies as well as by those of us who are recording the stories or painting the picture of their schools and classrooms. Clearly, using the concept of school culture as an element upon which one can work in effecting comprehensive change makes it incumbent to view effects aggregately as well as individually. (1996, p. 69)

School Culture Norms. Saphier and King (1985) identified 12 norms of a healthy school culture when examining elements of school improvement:

1. Collegiality.
2. Experimentation.

3. High expectations.
4. Trust and confidence.
5. Tangible support.
6. Reaching out to the knowledge base.
7. Appreciation and recognition.
8. Caring, celebration, and humor.
9. Involvement in decision making.
10. Protection of what's important.
11. Traditions.
12. Honest, open communication (pp. 67-71).

Saphier and King claimed, "If certain norms of school culture are strong, improvements in instruction will be significant, continuous, and widespread; if these norms are weak, improvements will be at best infrequent, random, and slow" (p. 67). Hirsh (1996) referenced Saphier's and King's norms when outlining a process to strengthen school culture. She found such processes essential given the widely-held belief that "healthy school culture is vital to strong student achievement" (pp. 2-3).

Collaborative School Cultures. Rosenholtz (1989) found that collaboration in effective schools was linked to established norms and fostered by principal-generated opportunities for continuous improvement and life-long learning. The most beneficial assumption here was that teaching is a collective rather than an individual enterprise; it is best done in concert with colleagues. As Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) noted, "For Rosenholtz, the most important effect of teacher collaboration is its impact on the

uncertainty of the job, which, when faced alone, can undermine a teacher's sense of confidence" (p. 45). The main benefit of collaboration was found to be a reduction in teachers' sense of powerlessness and an increase in their sense of efficacy.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) discussed Little's (1990) identification of three kinds of collegial teacher relations as weak collaboration: (a) scanning and storytelling, (b) help and assistance, and (c) sharing. In contrast, a fourth type – joint work – was observed to be a strong form of collaboration. Joint work created stronger interdependence, shared responsibility, and participation in review and critique. Fullan and Hargreaves offered high praise for a team of researchers (Nias, Southworth & Yeomans, 1989) from England for their insightful accounts of the characteristics of collaborative cultures. Their case studies of five primary schools revealed pervasive qualities, attitudes, and behaviors as key characteristics based on a commitment to valuing people as individuals and in groups. Failure and uncertainty were not defended, but shared and discussed to gain support (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996).

In collaborative school cultures, there is a common commitment and collective responsibility (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Peterson & Brietzke, 1994). Peterson and Brietzke summed it up as follows: "Collaborative cultures are . . . cultures that support deeper, richer professional interchange" (1994, p. 6). Concurrent with Peterson and Brietzke, Maeroff's research identified the skills and knowledge necessary for effective teamwork:

1. Group roles.
2. Stages of group development.
3. Leadership in small groups.

4. Effective communication.
5. Trust building.
6. Problem-solving, planning, and decision-making strategies.
7. Effective ways to conduct meetings.
8. Conflict resolution.
9. Group process evaluation (1993, p. 17).

Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) later recognized the crucial role for leadership coming from a variety of sources in the school, stating, “In the fully functioning collaborative school, many (indeed all) teachers are leaders” (p. 51). Using shared leadership among teacher leaders, teamwork, and the valuing of individuals, collaborative cultures have increased teachers’ senses of efficacy. Thus, teachers report a stronger belief that they have a substantial impact on student learning (Maeroff, 1993).

### Educational Change

Noted change theorist Michael Fullan (with Suzanne Stiefelbauer, 1991), addressed the multidimensional concept of educational change by delineating its subjective meaning and objective reality:

Change may come about either because it is imposed on us (by natural events or deliberate reform) or because we voluntarily participate in or even initiate change when we find dissatisfaction, inconsistency, or intolerability in our current situation . . . Real change, then, whether desired or not, represents a serious personal and collective experience characterized by ambivalence and uncertainty;

and if the change works out it can result in a sense of mastery and accomplishment, and professional growth (pp. 31-2).

Fullan's (1991) book reviewed the various causes of and processes of educational change, including those taking place at both the local and national levels. Included were chapters directed at individuals at all levels of organizations who are responsible for educational change:

It is not as if we can avoid change, since it pursues us in every way . . . . The answer is not in avoiding change, but in turning the tables by facing it head-on. The new mind-set is to exploit change before it victimizes us. Change is more likely to be an ally than an adversary, if it is confronted. We can learn to reject unwanted change more effectively, while at the same time becoming more effective at accomplishing desired improvements (p. 345).

Moving from a traditional, frequently unsuccessful way of managing change to this emerging paradigm associated with more successful results has been encapsulated in six themes by Fullan (1991):

1. From negative to positive politics.
2. From monolithic to alternative solutions.
3. From innovations to institutional development.
4. From going it alone to alliances.
5. From neglect to deeper appreciation of the change process.
6. From "if only" to "if I" or "if we" (pp. 346-7).

Fullan further contextualized his vision for educational change as occurring in those schools wherein the movement toward a vision had stimulated individual responsibility



and collective engagement. Here, teachers and principals alike were simultaneously influencing and being influenced in continuous exchange, while becoming experts in the change process.

Sarason (1982) described this continuous exchange of ideas and influence as critical for leadership. “If the principal is not constantly confronting one’s self and others, and if others cannot confront the principal with the world of competing ideas and values shaping life in a school,” he argued, “he or she is an educational administrator and not an educational leader” (p. 177). Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) subsequently advanced their own theory regarding the challenges emerging from the very type of ongoing confrontations promoted by Sarason. They cautioned that these confrontations were painful yet necessary, given that what was changing were mindsets, knowledge bases, and actions. The primary resultant challenge, then, was to develop an interactive professionalism where teachers worked jointly in collaborative cultures and were committed to norms of continuous school improvement. Fullan and Hargreaves believed this to be the optimal process leading to gains in student achievement (pp. x, xi). In their minds, the challenge also involved shaping the profession for the next era, in which they believed the learning of teachers would become inextricably bound to the learning of those they teach (p. xiii).

Writing alone, Hargreaves (1997) later bemoaned the fact that much of the literature on educational change has divorced itself from the emotional aspects of teaching and leading. He complained, “The literature treats educational change, leadership, and teacher development in rational, calculative, managerial, and stereotypically masculine ways” (p. 13). Hargreaves argued that teachers’ frustration and

resistance to imposed changes served as valuable prompts, enabling leaders to acknowledge the feelings and emotions of educational change. Fullan (1997) also cautioned educators to recognize that educational change often inherently yields three negative by-products:

1. Alienation among teachers.
2. Balkanization and burnout.
3. Multiplicity and fragmentation of change initiatives (p. 217).

He warned that if these emotional dimensions of educational change are ignored, they reenter the change process in the following forms:

1. Resentment.
2. Unmotivated teachers.
3. Teacher burnout.
4. Continued frustrations.
5. Pedagogical changes failure (Fullan, 1997, p. 18).

In what may be a dramatic understatement, Hargreaves (1997) ultimately said the failure to acknowledge these emotional dimensions constituted a lack of professional engagement which was counterproductive to school improvement efforts (p. 18).

Viewing results as a measure of change, Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, and Hall (1987) designed a Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) for facilitating the school improvement process. “A central and major premise of the CBAM is that the single most important factor in any change process is the people who will be most affected by the change,” they asserted (p. 29). Hord, et al. (1987) further found that research has identified seven stages of concern among people either directly involved

with an innovation or anticipating implementing an innovation. The stages may vary as the change process occurs; they are not necessarily linear stages. According to Hord, et al. (1987), the Stages of Concern are:

1. Awareness – no concern about the innovation.
2. Informational – a self-concern.
3. Personal – also a self-concern; likely to be intense.
4. Management – typically, concerns about time indicate intensity.
5. Consequence – the impact level, when concerns are about the effects of the innovation on students.
6. Collaboration – also the impact level, with concerns about working with others to improve the outcomes of the innovation.
7. Refocusing – concern for finding even better ways to enhance student learning (pp. 30-2).

Hord, et al. urged leaders to understand and expect these stages, asserting, “The key to successful facilitation is to personalize one’s interventions by focusing attention on the concerns of those engaged in the change process and accepting those concerns as legitimate reflections of changes in progress” (p. 90).

### Conflict in Organizations

“Intrapersonal perceptions are the bedrock upon which conflicts are built, but only when there are communicative manifestations of these perceptions will an ‘interpersonal conflict’ emerge,” contended William Wilmot and Joyce Hocker in their book, Interpersonal Conflict (1998, p. 35). Indeed, communication is clearly the vehicle

through which one demonstrates either a productive or destructive management of conflict. Wilmot and Hocker submitted that – at its heart – every conflict tests our response to one question, “How much are we willing to allow each other to influence our choices?” (p. 36).

Typically, the literature regarding conflict has either focused on its management (Bramson, 1981; Borisoff & Victor, 1989; Dugger, 1992; Hendricks, 1991; Lawless, 1979; Likert & Likert, 1976; Rahim, 1986;) or resolution (Cohen, Fink, Gadon, & Willits, 1984; Goleman, 1995; Seyfarth, 1996; Siress, 1994). A new focus emerged with studies of organizational culture and educational change which framed conflict positively as a type of creative (Senge, 1990) or dynamic tension (Nias, Southworth, & Campbell, 1992). Wheatley (1994) utilized a term from physics to describe positive conflict: “autopoiesis – natural processes that support the quest for structure, process, renewal, integrity” (p. 18). Michael Fullan (1997) expanded this notion by defining a purpose for positive conflict, stating that “emotion is energy . . . Finding a way to reconcile positive and negative emotion is the key to releasing energy for change” (p. 223). Fullan understood the type of conflict that occurred as a result of teachers being resistant to change. He also observed the foolhardy responses to these conflicts on the part of principals.

In 1997, Michael Fullan cautioned that, “Trying to manipulate or otherwise control the change process in order to minimize or eliminate resistance is not only futile, but it is exhausting” (p. 223). Resisters to change have not been perceived as valuable, whereas enthusiasts have been overvalued. Seeking to understand what lies behind teachers’ resistance, the leader stands a far greater chance for organizational change. He

argues that it is the quality of our relationships which matters most during times of intense change. Throughout the process of examining the role of emotion in interpersonal relationships, Fullan believed that leaders would gain a clear understanding of how to deal constructively with change.

Stepping away from schools, Fullan summarized the larger social context in which school conflicts occur:

Society is more complex, more chaotic, more nonlinear than ever before. The demands on schools are ever more multiple and fragmented . . . To survive in these circumstances requires a greater individual and group capacity. This capacity at its core is to be able to handle emotions and hope differently.

Frustration, disagreement, intractable problems are common fare. Working together under these circumstances takes on radically different meaning and urgency. It's not a matter of having trusting relationships with like-minded people . . . If we are to get anywhere on a larger scale, we have to take on the 'negative' emotions. Hope is not blind. It recognizes that disagreement and matters of power are central to working through the discomfort of diversity. (p. 231)

Fullan contended that understanding and deconstructing emotional responses, as well as clinging steadfastly to hope, when channeled positively, would sustain school restructuring and change efforts.

### Conflict Styles

For 20 years, Yarbrough and Wilmot (1995) studied destructive cycles of disputes and developed approaches for converting them into constructive conflicts. They found

that nurturing relationships formed the basis of vital communities. Yarbrough and Wilmot defined the cultural norms for managing conflict in an organization as the expectations for appropriate behavior and style of interacting. They further believed that, "Every organization has unspoken norms for how conflict should be handled" (pp. 70-1). They proposed that an organization's system for conflict resolution exists on a continuum with a conscious ignoring of conflict on one end, and a well-developed system for resolution on the other end. The system for resolution, they said, may involve an integrative approach in which a cooperative solution allows innovation to be enhanced.

Yarbrough and Wilmot (1995) affirmed the importance of culture in influencing conflict, noting, "The future cultures will be ones where the best people seek cooperative linkages and partnerships to solve complex problems in a whirlwind world of change" (p. 209). In terms of leadership, they declared, "People in organizations tend to emulate the style of the leaders, which means that leaders serve as powerful role models for constructive or destructive conflict" (p. 74). Later, Wilmot and Hocker (1998) described the ways in which culture influences conflict and how an array of cultural influences also dictate many responses for processing conflict. They concluded, "Culture frames conflict interaction" (p. 21-2). Schein's (1992) earlier work posited a similar belief by suggesting that we must understand the dynamics of culture if we are to take effective action when encountering unfamiliar or irrational behavior in people. Victor, Cullen, and Boynton (1993) likewise indicated that in defining the underlying constructs of culture and transmitting that definition through the collective, a ready mechanism for managing conflicts of understanding then became available.

**Mediation.** Mediation became a framework and process for regulating communication within vital communities. As a process, mediation is predicated upon three principles in that it:

1. Insists that the means of managing conflict is a key factor in creating workable outcomes.
2. Steps outside our normal framework of winners and losers.
3. Seeks to heal relationships grounded in feelings while addressing the problem grounded in facts (Yarbrough & Wilmot, 1995, p. xv).

Mediation is a way to set in motion positive, thriving energy, thereby supplanting protective, political, and adversarial approaches. Yarbrough and Wilmot concluded that, “Negative energy can be transformed, to allow satisfying, creative outcomes to emerge” (p. 3). They further emphasized that optimal mediation processes in any organization transmit a sense of valuing all the individuals in the organization as well as the contributions each can make.

**Collaboration.** Michael Fullan (1993) recognized the ability to collaborate as a core requisite of postmodern society. As such, he argued that it is foundational for generating change capacity in schools. He went so far as to list collaboration as one of four skills requisite for “change agency” (pp. 12, 31):

Small-scale collaboration involves the attitude and capacity to form productive mentoring and peer relationships, team building and the like. On a larger scale, it consists of the ability to work in organizations that form cross-institutional partnerships such as school district, university and school-community and

business agency alliances, as well as global relationships with individuals and organizations from other cultures (pp. 17-8).

Marshak's (1994) research findings echoed his own experience in schools:

When teachers have an opportunity to make decisions that matter and to work with others, most are much more willing to take on the challenges and risks of change, I believe, because they know both that they will have some significant control over that change and that they will have support from colleagues as they make the change (p. 4).

Additionally, Marshak outlined the necessity of educating teachers and administrators to become effective collaborators by gaining an understanding of collaboration and developing high quality collaborative skills (p. 4). These concepts or skills, detailed in the writings of Fisher and Brown (1988) and explored by Marshak, included the following:

1. Disentangle relationship issues from substantive ones.
2. Be unconditionally constructive.
3. Balance emotions with reason.
4. Learn how others see things.
5. Always consult before deciding – and listen.
6. Be wholly trustworthy, but not wholly trusting.
7. Persuade, don't coerce.
8. Deal seriously with those with whom we differ (1994, p. 5).

Marshak saw teachers and administrators, in six schools in the district serving as his sample, develop collaborative governance and teaching endeavors as a result of this work.



Baker, Costa and Shalit (1997) identified “Norms of Collaboration” to assist group members in negotiating and defining ways to work together for problem-solving and decision making (p. 125). These norms were identified as:

1. Pausing.
2. Paraphrasing.
3. Probing.
4. Putting ideas on and pulling ideas off the table.
5. Paying attention to self and others.
6. Presuming positive intentionality.
7. Providing data.
8. Pursuing a balance between advocacy and inquiry (p. 123).

Baker, et al. (1997) argued that it was critically important for collaborative teams to be skillful in various forms of communication if they were ever to be able to collectively reflect, evaluate, decide, and learn in ways improving peak performance within the organization (p.128). Uhl and Squires (1994) also viewed collaboration as fundamental to change efforts. In identifying four domains of collaboration (engagement, negotiation, performance, and assessment/evaluation), they underscored the notion of a flexible process for addressing problems.

### Summary

The climate and culture constructs have been viewed as subsets of each other and as parallel to each other with inverse capacity, finally emerging as separate concepts (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). Culture was deemed that which encapsulated the values

and beliefs of the organization and demonstrated the influence of norms and leadership (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Perceptions, both shared and individual, specifically affected motivation in the organization and ultimately change efforts (Maehr & Midgley, 1996).

Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) and Sarason (1982) understood the necessity for schools to confront and implement basic changes involving mindsets, knowledge bases, and actions that characterize the profession of the future. This challenge included developing an interactive professionalism wherein teachers would work jointly in collaborative cultures and remain committed to norms of continuous school improvement, leading to a process designed to orchestrate gains in student achievement. Mediation, a framework and process of communication, and collaboration, a core requisite for generating change capacity, were recognized as fundamental for peak performance in the organization. Finally, Fullan (1997) predicted that the leaders' ability to examine the role of emotion in interpersonal relationships would determine the school's potential in terms of how to deal constructively with change.

## Chapter Three

### Methodology

#### Research Design

This proposed study was conducted in a common research design known as descriptive survey research for the purposes of making inferences about characteristics, attitudes, or behaviors. The economy of this design and the ease of data collection retained the ability to discover attributes of a population from a sample (Babbie, 1973; Creswell, 1994). The survey was cross-sectional insofar as the results were gathered from some sites while simultaneously being administered and completed elsewhere. Because all of the schools in the sample were in the Pacific Northwest and were involved in an identifiable systemic-restructuring initiative, the data collection procedure was clearly managed and expeditious. The conflict styles of individual teachers, as well as their perceptions and their principals' perceptions of each school's culture were assessed.

#### Population and Sample

The sample was comprised of schools from districts in Montana, Idaho, and Washington. Elementary teachers from three schools in each state were surveyed. Only those elementary schools which had participated for more than one year in a systemic school reform initiative and change process were included in the population. Principals of these identified schools were also surveyed. Only those teachers and principals who had participated in the change initiative for at least one year were surveyed. A total of 150 teachers and nine principals comprised the sample.

### Sampling Procedures

A multistage sampling design was utilized to obtain the names of schools and principals in a cluster of those having participated in a school reform initiative for more than one year. The names of schools meeting the criteria for the cluster were obtained through telephone inquiries and directories made available from the various school districts. The number of years each school had been involved in a school reform initiative was included in the listing. From this cluster, a stratified random sample of three schools each was selected from Montana, Washington, and Idaho. Approximately 16 teachers and one principal from each of the identified schools, all of whom had participated in the systemic change initiative themselves for at least one year, were invited to complete the surveys.

### Instrumentation

The survey instrument used to measure conflict styles was the Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998, Appendix B), which is a survey design adapted from the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974), and which was developed by Dr. William W. Wilmot of The University of Montana. Permission to use the Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory was granted by Dr. Wilmot, who later provided the instrument. The Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989, Appendix C) was used to measure behavioral norms of the school organization, including expectations of how individuals interact with one another (Rousseau, 1990). The OCI was obtained from Human Synergistics/Center for Applied

Research, Inc., in Plymouth, Michigan.

**Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory.** Wilmot and Hocker (1998) described conflict style scales as having received considerable attention in workshops and research; however, such research on their dimensions has been limited or insufficient. The **Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory** is derived from the Kilmann and Thomas (1975) five-style approach, which includes: (1) avoidance, (2) competition, (3) compromise, (4) accommodation, and (5) collaboration (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998, pp. 111, 175). Teachers and principals were asked to score the inventory using a rank-ordered scale of (1) never, (2) seldom, (3) sometimes, (4) often, and (5) always. The responses were totaled by category according to conflict style.

**Organizational Culture Inventory.** Rousseau (1990) discussed how the **OCI**, as a quantitative measure of behavioral norms, focused on expectations regarding members' behavior and interactions with one another. Cooke and Szumal (1993) related how the **OCI** measures the cultures of organizations in terms of twelve sets of behavioral norms associated with three types of cultures, as follows:

Consistent with the "security-satisfaction" and "task-people" distinctions, the 12 sets of normative beliefs and behavioral expectations measured by the inventory can be categorized into three general types of organizational cultures, Constructive, Passive-Defensive, and Aggressive-Defensive. The behavioral norms are associated with these three types of cultures as follows:

1. **Constructive** cultures, in which members are encouraged to interact with others and approach tasks in ways that will help them meet their higher-order **satisfaction** needs, are characterized by Achievement, Self-actualizing,

Humanistic-Encouraging, and Affiliative norms;

2. Passive-Defensive cultures, in which members believe they must interact with people in ways that will not threaten their own security, are characterized by Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance norms; and
3. Aggressive-Defensive cultures, in which members are expected to approach tasks in forceful ways to protect their status and security, are characterized by Oppositional, Power, Competitive, and Perfectionistic norms (Cooke, 1989, pp. 12-3 in Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

Individual responses from the inventory are plotted on a circumplex, creating a picture of the shared behavioral expectations held in common by the members of the culture (Cooke & Szumal, 1999). The assessment is defined by examining the underlying dimensions of concern for people versus a concern for tasks, as well as the need for satisfaction versus the need for security. Rousseau (1990) stated, “This second dimension refers to the degree to which individuals are encouraged to avoid conflict and protect themselves, or to innovate and take risks” (p. 178).

Rousseau’s (1990) review of various organizational assessments indicated that assessments based on member perceptions reveal the structures giving pattern to organizational activities and integrating members:

Structures reflect those patterns of activity—decision making, coordination and communication mechanism, and so on—that are observable to outsiders and whose functions help solve basic organization problems, such as coordination and adaptation (Cooke & Rousseau, 1981). Behavioral norms, that is, member beliefs regarding acceptable and unacceptable behavior, promote mutual predictability,

but they may be difficult to note without direct information from members (pp. 156-7).

By considering a model of culture which includes layers of elements, varying in observability and accessibility, Rousseau (1990) suggested that it was reasonable for quantitative assessments of culture to focus on more observable elements. In reference to the OCI, Rousseau claimed that the instrument “suggests that norms derived from theories of behavior in organizations share a common focus (tasks or people) and reflect both behavior-inhibiting and behavior-encouraging expectations” (p. 178).

Cooke and Szumal (1993) found the internal consistency reliability of the OCI's 12 scales displayed in coefficients ranging from .65 to .90 for Form II, which included respondents at only two hierarchical levels similar to the levels of the principals and teachers included in this study. Coefficients ranged from .75 to .91 for Form III, which consisted of respondents at a single hierarchical level.

Inter-rater reliability was influenced by the composition of the samples. The range of coefficients between the unadjusted and adjusted formulas was .60 to .88 where organizational membership was considered homogeneous, as is the case of the teachers in the sample for this study. Within-group agreement regarding norms depended upon the degree to which respondents were similar in terms of positional factors. Variation was consistent with writings on organizational culture that drew a distinction between strong and weak cultures (e.g., Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

The construct validity was supported in the results reported by Cooke and Szumal (1993). In performing a factor analysis, a three-factor solution – Constructive, Aggressive-Defensive, and Passive-Defensive – was identified with the Constructive

scales being the strongest factor. Communalities ranged from .45 to .79 for Form II, and .59 to .82 for Form III. The Humanistic-Encouraging, Affiliative, Achievement, and Self-Actualizing scales all show loadings above .80 on a single factor and loadings below .25 on the other two factors. In general, they reported high construct validity in regard to all of the 12 scales. Results indicated that the inventory measures what it is designed to measure, i.e. (1) Humanistic-Encouraging culture, (2) Affiliative culture, (3) Approval culture, (4) Conventional culture, (5) Dependent culture, (6) Avoidance culture, (7) Oppositional culture, (8) Power culture, (9) Competitive culture, (10) Perfectionistic culture, (11) Achievement culture, and (12) Self-Actualizing culture.

Results which strongly supported the criterion-related validity of the four Constructive scales as well as the Conventional and Avoidance scales with respect to normative stress and satisfaction were also reported by Cooke and Szumal (1993). Data showed that the normative beliefs measured by the inventory were related to the levels of satisfaction and stress reported by individual members. Strong support was also found for the criterion-related validity of the Constructive scales in relation to shared behavioral expectations. Cooke and Szumal stated:

Norms promoting conflict and confrontation apparently create a negative environment from which people are likely to remove themselves . . . . The . . . results not only provided support for the validity of the inventory but also lend credence to the popular, but largely untested, belief that culture affects the satisfaction and performance of organizational members (pp. 1320-1).



## Procedures

Permission to survey the teachers and principals was obtained in writing from all principals of school districts in the selected sample (Appendix D). A telephone call to the district superintendent prior to the site visit, along with a follow-up cover letter (Appendix A) to the superintendent and participants informed them that this research was being conducted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a doctoral degree in educational administration at The University of Montana. The surveys were administered on site to a selected sample of teachers and the principal by the researcher and assistants. The protocol for the administration and collection of the surveys by the assistants was (a) give each respondent one copy each of the two instruments, and upon completion, (b) guide the respondent to place the one inventory inside the pages of the second inventory for purposes of categorizing the responses, and (c) place inside the manila envelope provided for collection. The purpose of the study, its voluntary nature, confidentiality, and the importance of both the teachers' and the principals' participation was fully explained. Strict confidentiality was assured and maintained. Upon completion of the dissertation, and in accordance with the American Psychological Association timelines, all of the relevant confidential records will be destroyed, leaving only aggregate tabulations of data for subsequent publication and validation or both. Finally, pursuant to Institutional Review Board guidelines, all data was stored in a locked cabinet for the duration of the research.

## Treatment of the Data

The Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998) was used to

categorize responses by conflict style. The Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989) ranking of culture followed each respondent into his or her conflict style category. An analysis was run to identify the relative consistency (if any) of the respondents within each conflict style. Ordinal-level statistical tests were applied to the data. Nonparametric rank-ordered correlations were reported as appropriate. Frequencies of the responses were also reported. The alpha level for statistical significance was set *a priori* at  $<.05$ , with a practical level of correlation set at .6. Computer analysis of the data was conducted with the GB Stat program (1995).

## Chapter Four

### Research Findings

#### Introduction

The intent of this study was to examine whether a relationship existed between individual teachers' conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture. An additional focus was to examine whether there existed a correlation between the teachers' perceptions and the principal's perception of the school culture. The sample was comprised of elementary schools from districts in the Northwest which had been involved in a school reform initiative for more than one year. Permission to survey the teachers and principals was obtained from the superintendents and principals in three elementary schools from each Northwestern state. Schools in Washington, Idaho, and Montana participated in the study.

The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis of the data collected from the two survey instruments selected to measure the individual conflict style of each teacher in the sample, along with the teachers' and principals' perceptions of the school's culture. This chapter also presents the results of the study in a manner organized according to the research questions. A sample of 150 teachers completed both the Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998) and the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989). The nine principals of the schools in the sample completed the OCI. These responses constituted a response rate of 100%, as the data were collected at the school sites by the researcher or an assistant. The responses provided the data which

were then compiled and analyzed to test the two hypotheses and in response to the two research questions.

### Procedures For Analysis of Data

The data were analyzed to determine if there exists a relationship between teachers' individual conflict styles and their perceptions of their school's culture. An analysis was also conducted to determine if a correlation existed between the principal's perception and the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture. The responses to the Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory were arranged by total scores and associated to the five styles of conflict. The dominant conflict style was then classified with a number from one through five, representing each conflict style: Avoidance - 1, Competition - 2, Compromise - 3, Accommodation - 4, and Collaboration - 5. The responses to the Organizational Culture Inventory were also totaled and arranged in terms of their association to the 12 types of culture style. The Constructive Styles were identified as: 1 – A Humanistic-Encouraging culture; 2 – An Affiliative culture; 11 – An Achievement culture; and 12 – A Self-Actualizing culture. The Passive/Defensive Styles were: 3 – An Approval culture; 4 – A Conventional culture; 5 – A Dependent culture; and 6 – An Avoidance culture. The Aggressive/Defensive Styles were: 7 – An Oppositional culture; 8 – A Power culture; 9 – A Competitive culture; and 10 – A Perfectionistic culture. The two, three or four highest totals in Styles 1, 2, 11, or 12 were classified as Type 1 (Constructive). Totals highest in Styles 3, 4, 5, or 6 were classified as Type 2 (Passive/Defensive). Totals highest in Styles 7, 8, 9, or 10 were classified as Type 3 (Aggressive/Defensive). The Type 1 Constructive culture style was defined as

Collaborative school culture. The ranking of school culture type followed each respondent into his or her conflict style, allowing for the determination of a correlation. A summary of those pairings by school is found in Tables 1-3.

### Analysis of the Data

The following tables provide evidence for analysis and responses to the research questions which follow. The data are arranged by school in each state, by state, and in a collective of all responses. Results of statistical tests are also presented.

In ranking the responses, the observed results indicated a preference for the Constructive culture Type 1 and the Collaboration (5) conflict style. The analysis of the data also indicated these findings. The teachers responded with 96% perceiving their school to have a Constructive (Collaborative) culture Type 1 as shown in Table 1. This dominant culture type was then correlated with the teachers' responses identifying the dominant conflict style. The Constructive (Collaborative) culture type was correlated with 74% of the teachers who were identified as having Collaboration (5) as a dominant conflict style (Table 2).

Table 1

#### Teachers' Dominant Culture Type

Teachers	Culture Type	Percent
144	1	96%
5	2	3%
1	3	1%
150		100%

Note. Culture Types: Constructive – 1, Passive/Defensive – 2, Aggressive/Defensive – 3.

An analysis of these data was performed with a Chi-Square Test. The Chi-Square Independence value was 265, resulting in a probability value of  $< .0001$ . These results

**Table 2**

**Dominant Conflict Style of Teachers With Culture Type 1**

Teachers	Conflict Style	Percent
106	5	74%
6	4	4%
17	3	12%
0	2	0%
15	1	10%
144		100%

**Note.** Conflict Styles: 1 – Avoidance, 2 – Competition, 3 – Compromise, 4 – Accommodation, 5 – Collaboration.

exhibited a statistically significant preference for the Constructive culture Type 1 and the Collaboration (5) conflict style.

A Collaboration (5) conflict style was dominant for at least 66% of the Idaho teachers in all three schools (Table 3). All but three teachers perceived their school culture to be a Constructive (Collaborative) Type 1 school culture. Two teachers whose dominant conflict style was Compromise (3) viewed their school culture as being Passive/Defensive Type 2, which indicates a belief that they must interact with others in defensive ways that will not threaten their own security. No teachers in Idaho were identified with a Competition (2) conflict style. Every respondent from School B perceived their school culture to be a Constructive (Collaborative) Type 1, signifying high satisfaction and commitment to the school.

**Table 3****Idaho Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type**

<b>School A</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
10	5	1	66%
1	4	1	7%
1	3	2	7%
3	1	1	20%
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>		<b>100%</b>

<b>School B</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
15	5	1	79%
1	3	1	5%
3	1	1	16%
<b>Total</b>	<b>19</b>		<b>100%</b>

<b>School C</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
12	5	1	67%
1	5	2	5.5%
1	4	1	5.5%
1	3	2	5.5%
2	3	1	11%
1	1	1	5.5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>		<b>100%</b>

**Note.** Conflict Styles: 1 – Avoidance, 2 – Competition, 3 – Compromise, 4 – Accommodation, 5 – Collaboration. Culture Types: Constructive – 1, Passive/Defensive – 2, Aggressive/Defensive – 3.

All but two teachers in the Montana schools (Table 4) saw their school's culture as being Constructive (Collaborative) Type 1, whereas all of the teachers in School E perceived their school to be a Constructive (Collaborative) Type 1 school culture, indicating a high level of satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Teachers in

**Table 4****Montana Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type**

<b>School D</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
12	5	1	75%
1	5	2	6%
2	3	1	13%
1	1	1	6%
<b>Total</b>	16		100%

<b>School E</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
14	5	1	74%
1	4	1	5%
3	3	1	16%
1	1	1	5%
<b>Total</b>	19		100%

<b>School F</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
13	5	1	68%
1	5	2	5%
2	4	1	11%
3	3	1	16%
<b>Total</b>	19		100%

**Note.** Conflict Styles: 1 – Avoidance, 2 – Competition, 3 – Compromise, 4 – Accommodation. Culture Types: Constructive – 1, Passive/Defensive – 2, Aggressive/Defensive – 3.

the Montana schools were not identified as having Competition (2) as a dominant conflict style. Eight teachers were found to have Compromise (3) as a dominant conflict style, but perceived their school's culture to be Constructive (Collaborative) Type 1.



**Table 5****Washington Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type**

<b>School G</b>				
	<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
	8	5	1	67%
	1	4	1	8%
	3	3	1	25%
<b>Total</b>	12			100%
<b>School H</b>				
	<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
	14	5	1	88%
	1	3	1	6%
	1	1	1	6%
<b>Total</b>	16			100%
<b>School I</b>				
	<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
	8	5	1	50%
	1	5	3	6%
	2	3	1	13%
	5	1	1	31%
<b>Total</b>	16			100%

**Note.** Conflict Styles: 1 – Avoidance, 2 – Competition, 3 – Compromise, 4 – Accommodation, 5 – Collaboration. Culture Types: Constructive – 1, Passive/Defensive – 2, Aggressive/Defensive – 3.

The Washington teachers (Table 5) strongly perceived their schools to have Constructive (Collaborative) Culture Type 1. No teachers were identified as having Competition (2) as a dominant conflict style. However, 31% of the teachers in School I were identified with Avoidance (1) as a dominant conflict style. These teachers can be described as having low assertiveness and low cooperation in regard to concern for self and others. The 13% from School I who are classified with Compromise (3) as the

dominant conflict style can be characterized as having an average assertiveness and cooperation.

**Table 6**

**Composite of Teachers' Conflict Style and Culture Type**

<b>Idaho</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
37	5	1	71%
1	5	2	2%
2	4	1	4%
2	3	2	4%
3	3	1	6%
7	1	1	13%
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>		<b>100%</b>

<b>Montana</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
39	5	1	72%
2	5	2	4%
3	4	1	5.5%
8	3	1	14.5%
2	1	1	4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>54</b>		<b>100%</b>

<b>Washington</b>			
<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Style</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Percent</b>
30	5	1	68%
1	5	3	2%
1	4	1	2%
6	3	1	14%
6	1	1	14%
<b>Total</b>	<b>44</b>		<b>100%</b>

**Note.** Conflict Styles: 1 – Avoidance, 2 – Competition, 3 – Compromise, 4 – Accommodation, 5 – Collaboration. Culture Types: Constructive – 1, Passive/Defensive – 2, Aggressive/Defensive – 3.

The high correlation of teachers' Collaborative (5) conflict style and teachers' perception of the school's culture being Constructive (Collaborative) Type 1 at a practical

level of .70 is illustrated in Table 6. All schools exhibited the second highest correlation between the Compromise (3) conflict style and the Constructive (Collaborative) culture Type 1.

The relationship among each teacher's conflict style, his or her perception of the school's culture, and the principal's perception of the school's culture is summarized in Table 7. An analysis was performed with a Chi-Square statistical test. The Chi-Square-Independence value was 401, which also gave a probability value of  $<.0001$ . Whereas Compromise (3) was identified as a dominant conflict style for 12% of the sample, only 10% of the teachers had a dominant conflict style of Avoidance (1). In both of these

Table 7

Correlation of Conflict Style with Culture Type and Principals' Perceptions of School Culture – Idaho, Montana, Washington

	Teachers	Style	Type	Percent
	106	5	1	71%
	3	5	2	2%
	1	5	3	1%
	6	4	1	4%
	2	3	2	1%
	17	3	1	11%
	15	1	1	10%
Total	150			100%
Principals	9		1	100%

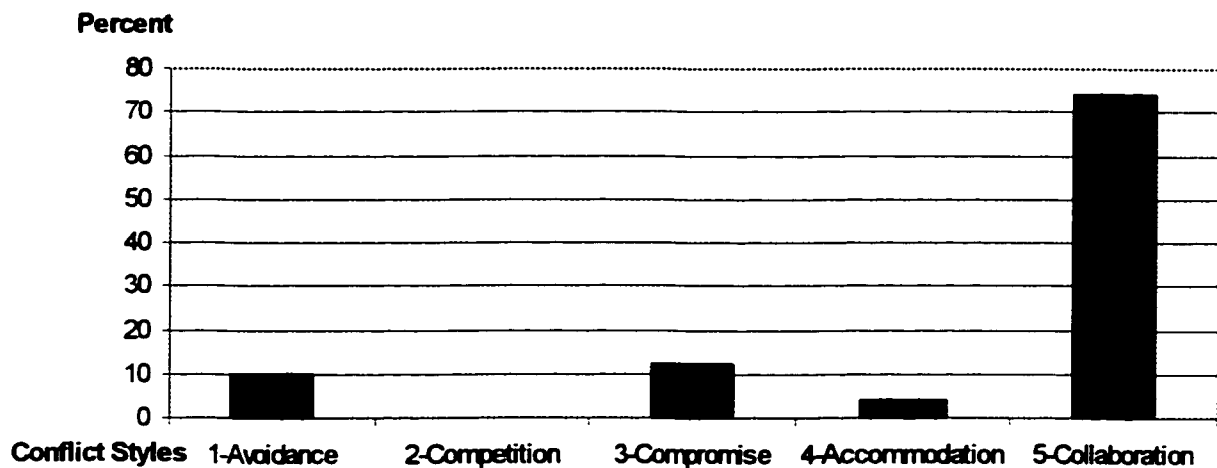
Note. Conflict Styles: 1 – Avoidance, 2 – Competition, 3 – Compromise, 4 –

Accommodation, 5 – Collaboration. Culture Types: Constructive – 1, Passive/Defensive – 2, Aggressive/Defensive – 3.

groups, the teachers perceived their school's culture to be a Constructive (Collaborative) culture Type 1. All of the principals in the sample perceived their school's culture to be a Constructive (Collaborative) culture Type 1.

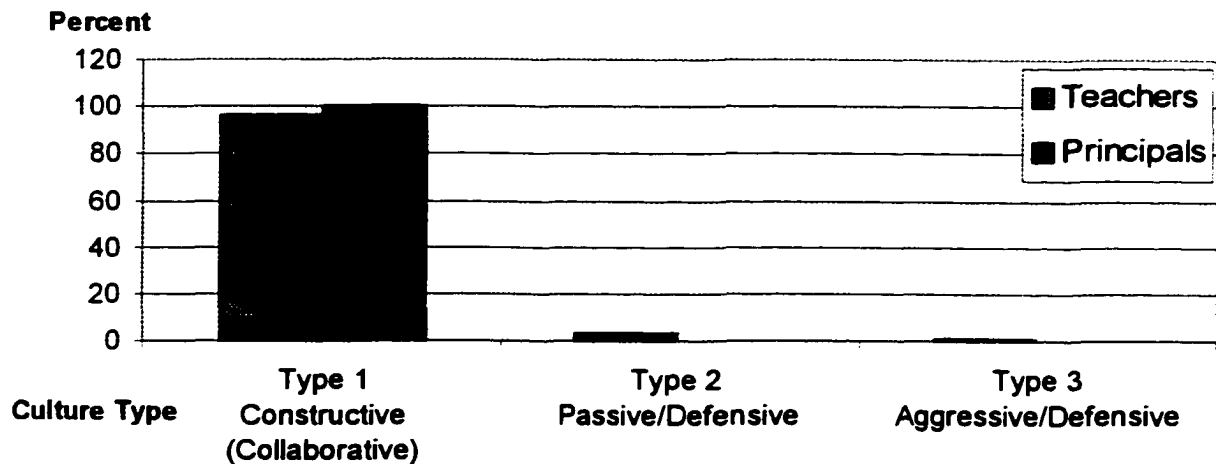
The observed responses differed from what was expected, exhibiting a statistically significant preference for the Collaboration (5) conflict style. This finding is illustrated in Figure 1. The statistically significant results revealing Constructive

**Figure 1. Teachers' Conflict Styles (n = 150)**



(Collaborative) culture Type 1 as the dominant culture type (Figure 2) also revealed a nearly perfect match between the principals' perceptions and the teachers' perceptions of Constructive (Collaborative) culture Type 1.

**Figure 2. Teachers' and Principals' Perceptions of School Culture (n=150)**



### Research Questions

The first question for quantitative analysis was, “Is there a statistically significant relationship between individual teachers’ conflict styles as measured by the Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory and teachers’ perceptions of the school culture as measured by the Organizational Culture Inventory?” Evidence from the results of both inventories confirms a positive relationship between individual teachers’ conflict styles and their perceptions of the school culture as viewed in Tables 2, 6 and 7. A positive relationship exists between the groups of respondents (74%) identified with a dominant conflict style of Collaboration (5) and (12%) Compromise (3), and their perceptions of the school’s culture as being Constructive (collaborative) Type 1 (82%). Those teachers who saw their school culture as Passive/Defensive Type 2 or Aggressive/Defensive Type 3 were identified with a Collaboration (5) or Compromise (3) dominant conflict style, which yields a positive association. The 10% of the sample who were identified with an

Avoidance (1) conflict style perceived their school's culture to be a Constructive (Collaborative) culture Type 1, which also indicates a positive association.

The second research question asked was, "Does a correlation exist between the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture and the principal's perception of the school's culture as measured by the Organizational Culture Inventory?" Teachers perceived their school's culture to be a Constructive (collaborative) Type 1 at a level of 96% as depicted in Table 1. This correlated by 100% with their principal's perception of the school's culture as also being Constructive (collaborative) Type 1 as viewed in Table 7.

The following null hypotheses were tested in this research:

H<sub>01</sub> - There will be no statistically significant relationship between teachers' individual conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture.

H<sub>02</sub> - There will be no statistically significant relationship between the principal's perception of the school's culture and the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture.

In this research, both of the null hypotheses were rejected. A statistically significant relationship was found to exist between the teachers' individual conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture. A significant relationship was also identified in each school between the principal's perception of the school's culture and the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture.

### Summary of the Results

This chapter presented the analyzed data collected from nine schools participating in an identifiable school improvement initiative chosen from districts in the Northwestern

United States. Two instruments were utilized. The Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998) was used to assess individual teachers' conflict styles, and the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989) was used to determine the teachers' and their principal's perception of the school's culture. The data were categorized, ranked, and analyzed to identify relative consistencies.

A Chi-Square test found statistical significance at the level of  $p < .0001$ . The two null hypotheses were tested to determine whether a significant relationship existed between the two variables stated in each of the hypotheses. It was determined that: (a) there existed a statistically significant relationship between individual teachers' conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture; and (b) there was a statistically significant relationship between the individual teachers' perceptions and the principal's perception when it came to assessing the school's culture.

## Chapter Five

### Summary, Findings, Recommendations, and Conclusions

#### Summary

In response to the widely-heralded imperative that school leaders must first know and understand their school's culture if they are to effectively nurture and sustain the changes inherent in school improvement, this study was designed to examine the relationship between conflict style and school culture. Throughout the creation and maintenance of a learning community, success for all students is dependent upon both the teachers and principal collectively navigating the uncertain waters of conflicts emerging from educational change. After Dianne Keenan (1984) and Karen Schilling (1988) found no significant relationships to exist between educators' (teachers' and their principals') perceptions of school climate and the principal's conflict management style, the mandate to investigate more deeply the possibility of connections between school culture and conflict styles was set forth in the literature. Hence, this research sought to answer a burning question.

This study was framed around two major questions: (a) Was there a relationship between individual teachers' conflict styles and their perceptions of the school's culture? and (b) Did a relationship exist between individual teachers' perceptions and their principal's perception of the school's culture? The foundational literature was reviewed in two major areas (school culture and conflict styles) and reported in Chapter Two.

An overview and comparison and broad overview of the constructs of climate and culture as well as their subsequent evolutions yielded the seminal definitions of culture as "the way we do things around here" (Bower, 1966) and climate as the "personality" of



the organization (Halpin & Croft, 1963). School cultures, then, are supported by behavioral norms which define expectations, values, and beliefs (Saphier & King, 1985). Ultimately, Schein (1992) advanced the argument that the evolution of culture and organizational systems into collaborative cultures is dependent upon the educational leader's ability to know and understand the school's culture.

Educational change serves as a prompt for conflict in organizations and triggers the various conflict styles individuals employ to invite either productive or nonproductive outcomes. Fullan (1991) defined educational change and its energy potential, focusing on collaboration as the key for change agency (1993). Wilmot and Hocker (1998) affirmed the influence of culture on conflict, developing an array of responses for processing conflict. With collaboration as a conflict style, norms for collaboration were proposed for problem-solving and decision making by Baker, Costa, and Shalit (1997).

Schools involved in a school improvement initiative for more than one year were selected to gather data from 150 elementary teachers and nine principals in the Northwestern United States. Two forms of instruments were used to determine individual teachers' conflict styles and perceptions of school culture. The Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory (Wilmot & Hocker, 1998) assessed each teacher's conflict style. The Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989) measured the teachers' and their principal's perceptions of the school's culture. Responses were compiled, scored, tabulated, ranked, and statistically analyzed using the Chi-Square test. Hypotheses were tested at the  $<.05$  level of significance.

## Findings

Supported by the analyses as reported in Chapter Four, the following items constituted the findings of this research:

1. Of the elementary teachers in this study, 96% perceived their school's culture to be Constructive (collaborative) Type 1. According to the assessment category, these teachers are experiencing a high degree of satisfaction in their schools as a result of feeling valued and encouraged. Problems are most often solved collaboratively in an open arena of communication and opportunities for individual growth are prevalent. These teachers tend to be open to influence and have a sense of belonging to the school. Therefore, these schools are experiencing a high degree of collaboration through their involvement in a school improvement initiative, which typically is a cornerstone of the basic design or model.
2. Teachers with a Collaboration dominant conflict style constituted 74% of the total sample. Accordingly, teaming and cooperation are important to these teachers, contributing to the development of a collaborative school culture. These teachers have likely experienced positive outcomes as a result of their efforts to collaborate to solve problems and find solutions. A large component in school improvement initiatives typically is professional development, with the stated belief that professional growth is vital to collaborative school cultures. The expectation that they participate in professional development with greater-than-usual frequency may demand more collaboration on the part

of teachers. It should also be noted that teachers with a Collaboration (5) conflict style are high in assertiveness and high in cooperation.

3. The next largest group of teachers [those identified with either a Compromise conflict style (12%) or an Avoidance conflict style (10%)] still perceived their schools to exhibit a Constructive (collaborative) culture style. The results indicated that these 32 teachers are not adept at communication or problem solving skills to the degree that they exhibit a Collaboration conflict style. Nonetheless, their scores indicated that they understand and value the capacity for collaboration in their schools. Teachers with an Avoidance (1) conflict style have low assertiveness and low cooperation, when considering concern for self and others. Teachers utilizing the Compromise (3) conflict style are at the median for assertiveness and cooperation.
4. The correlation of Collaboration (5) conflict style and Constructive (collaborative) culture Type 1 is high for each state, with the results nearly mirroring one another. Again, the amount of school reform and school improvement initiatives active in the states of Idaho, Montana, and Washington may be contributing to an established culture of collaboration in each of these nine schools.
5. None of the teachers were identified with a Competition (2) conflict style, suggesting that their concern for others in the organization outweighs their needs to act on their concerns for self.
6. Regardless of their individual conflict styles, 96% of the teachers saw their organization as collaborative.

7. Every principal in the nine schools perceived his or her school's culture to be Constructive (collaborative) Type 1, marking a 100% correlation to the teachers' perceptions of the school's culture. These principals exhibit great consistency of perspective with teachers working there. Arguably, they "know" their school culture and are likely, also, to realize the importance of relationships in the organization. As a result, the potential for positive outcomes from school improvement initiatives currently underway is great in the schools they lead.

### Recommendations

The findings generated in this research resulted in numerous recommendations. These recommendations have been categorized into two groups: those with implications for future research, and those with special bearing upon the profession of educational leadership. These will be discussed in the following sections.

Implications for further research. This study yielded the following implications for research:

1. A study designed to measure the perceptions of school culture and conflict styles of teachers in schools not involved in a school improvement initiative would be tremendously beneficial. Those results would serve as a basis of comparison to the findings of this research. Such a study could also involve assessing the principal's perception of the school's culture for possible correlations to the teachers' perceptions.

2. Investigating the principal's conflict style and its relationship to school culture as well as to the teachers' mean/aggregate conflict styles could provide insight into that complex relationship. Establishing a quasi-experimental study wherein principals are subsequently moved to schools where both matches and mismatches occur would provide a sense of which scenario might be deemed the most satisfactory.
3. Qualitative data gathered in a follow-up study using these same subjects would provide insight into the teachers' personalities and other characteristics related again to their conflict styles. Demographic data gathered herein would foster an understanding of how career stages might also be associated with conflict styles.
4. Research designed to understand students' perceptions of their school's culture would contribute to the literature attempting to establish a correlation between culture and student achievement.
5. This study could be replicated at the middle and high school levels for comparison with the findings of this research on elementary schools.
6. Because school communities exist within larger communities and are undeniably influenced by them, research that would measure the community's perception of the school's culture could ascertain the degree to which outsiders share the perceptions of school personnel. These results might guide improved public relations efforts as well as an expansion in community and parent involvement.

Implications for educational leaders. Educational leaders are advised to consider the full import of these implications:

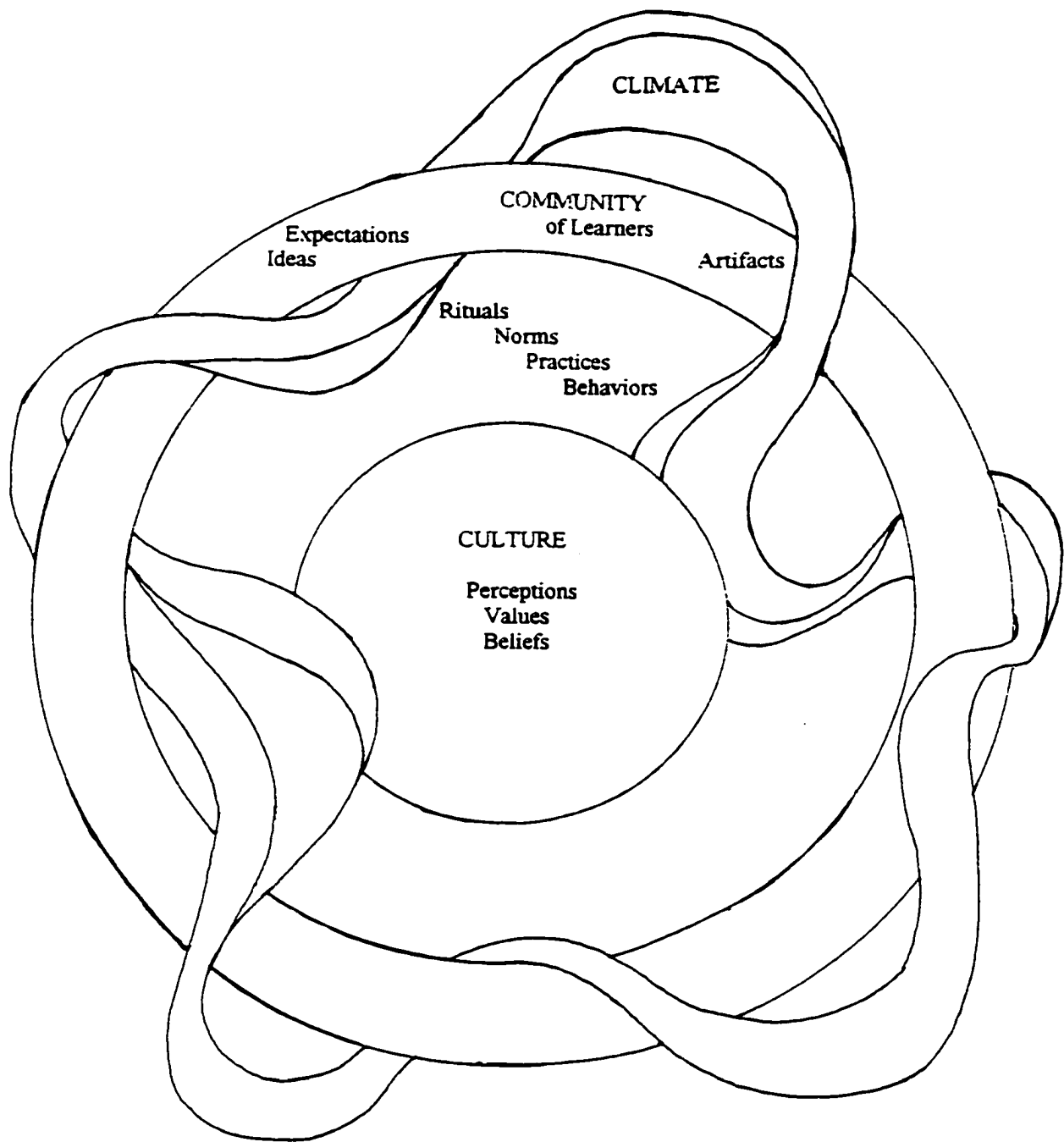
1. This research underscored the need for principals and other school administrators to learn about and understand their school's culture as they attempt successful school reform.
2. In an *a priori* sense, it is clear that school culture must be considered when assessing a school's readiness to implement change initiatives or begin school improvement processes. Indeed, it may be that identifying a school's culture becomes particularly crucial if we discover that only specific cultures are associated with successful school reform.
3. The school improvement process may orient people toward the expectation that people will work together for these purposes, despite the fact that all teachers and administrators will further be expected to recognize and respect others' style preferences.
4. Establishing school norms for collaboration and providing ample opportunities for teachers to collaborate may be requisite in creating positive school cultures. Indeed, such practice makes intuitive sense given the fact that these specialized interpersonal collaboration skills are not specified in the curricula for undergraduate teacher education.
5. The influence of culture on schools' efficacy indicates the need to establish and maintain comprehensive teacher induction programs designed to acculturate new teachers to the beliefs, values, norms, and collaborative expectations of the school.

6. The influence of the leader on school culture prompts consideration for graduate programs in educational leadership to actively assess students before admission. Identifying their dominant conflict style and collaboration skills may qualify some students as potentially successful administrators with positive culture-building capacity.

### Conclusions

In response to the challenge of educational change, school leaders need to invest the school organization in school improvement initiatives and professional development. These initiatives serve as a strong basis for promoting positive student outcomes. As keepers of the vision, leaders must stay focused on these improvements and strategies for excellence, while simultaneously checking the climate barometer to attend to the emotional disequilibrium that occurs with change. But, massaging the climate only touches the surface of what drives the emotions of an organization. Beneath the surface lies the heart and soul of the organization, its perceptions, values, and beliefs.

A school exists as a tapestry where culture, climate, and community are interwoven and dependent upon the relationships among all individuals who live there. This interchange is depicted in Figure 3. At the core is the school's culture, the embodiment of its perceptions, values, and beliefs. The culture manifests itself in rituals, norms, practices, and behaviors, revealing Bower's (1966) "the way we do things around here." Ultimately, the learning community emerges through the healthy expression of ideas, expectations, and the creation of artifacts that bring the culture to life. The results of this evolution are characterized in the school's climate, which presents itself as the





“personality” and barometer of the organization.

The findings of this research have emphasized the importance of the development of a healthy and productive school culture. This is necessary if leaders (and their organizations) are ever to realize a healthy climate and productive learning community. With this fact in mind, school leaders remain the catalyst for transforming cultures into types identified as conducive to positive reform, such as collaborative cultures. This research suggests that culture is not only malleable, but also responsive to effective leadership.

The findings included the fact that teachers with collaborative conflict styles consistently viewed their organization’s culture as collaborative, whereas such consistency did not emerge among or between groups of other conflict styles (e.g. accommodating, avoiding, etc.) underscoring the need for schools to seek teachers with the former perspective. Indeed, it may well be that the collaborators have a consistent view of the organizational conflict simply *because they are collaborators*. Perhaps inherent in that conflict style is an invaluable interpersonal networking which enables those folks to see the organization’s whole, whereas the avoiders and others may instead “hole up” in their classrooms and, through this isolation, lose a sense of how the organization actually works (its culture). The good news is that conflict has the same properties as culture; it is subject to change and transformation by effective leadership.

To the degree that – as Peter Duncan (April, 2000) suggests – “leaders are the embodiment of their organization,” they serve as important role models for others. Consequently, it is imperative that they understand school culture and learn effective

means by which they might enhance it. Examining the relationship between conflict and culture, therefore, provides them with invaluable insight.

## APPENDIXES

**Appendix A**  
**Letter to Superintendents**



Department of Educational Leadership  
and Counseling  
School of Education  
The University of Montana  
Missoula, Montana 59812-1053

Educational Leadership phone: (406) 243-5586  
FAX: (406) 243-2916  
Counselor Education phone: (406) 243-5252  
FAX: (406) 243-4205

January 17, 2000

Dear Superintendent:

We, in education, are experiencing massive educational change in the form of school reform and restructuring. There has been a quantity of research completed in the area of the change process, including the emotional dimensions of the educators in a learning community, which, if ignored, may manifest in negative outcomes for any change initiatives.

As instructional leaders, school principals are responsible for promoting "best practices" in their schools, along with fostering teacher professional development. It is essential for leaders to have an understanding of the school's culture to build a strong learning community toward accomplishment of the school's mission and vision. This includes recognizing conflict and its potential as a positive force in the change process.

At this time, research is being conducted at The University of Montana on individual teachers' conflict styles as they relate to the teachers' perceptions of their school's culture. This research is also examining principal's perceptions of the school's culture. Because schools in your district are involved in systemic school reform, they have been selected to participate in this study. Information from this study may assist principals in facilitating change and fostering professional development to the successful goal of student achievement. You will receive a copy of the findings, if you so desire.

If you are willing to assist me in my research by granting permission for me to visit your school on a pre-arranged day for the purpose of surveying teachers and principals, please respond in writing with said permission to the address listed below. Approximately 20-30 minutes will be required of teachers and the principal to complete the surveys, which will remain confidential. Upon completion of the dissertation all of the relevant confidential records will be destroyed.

If you have any questions, please contact me at your convenience. Thank you for consideration of this request, and hopefully, your subsequent permission.

Sincerely,

GAIL D. BECKER  
2007 Woodbine Way  
Polson, MT 59860  
406.883.1079 (home) 406.883.6229.x401 (work) [gdbecker@digisys.net](mailto:gdbecker@digisys.net)

An Equal Opportunity University

**Appendix B**  
**Wilmot Conflict Styles Inventory**

## Appendix B - MY STYLES

Think of a context where you have a conflict, disagreement, argument or disappointment with someone. An example might be a work associate. Then, according to the following scale, fill in your scores.

1 = never      2 = seldom      3 = sometimes      4 = often      5 = always

1. \_\_\_\_ I avoid being "put on the spot"; I keep conflicts to myself.
2. \_\_\_\_ I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.
3. \_\_\_\_ I usually try to "split the difference" in order to resolve an issue.
4. \_\_\_\_ I generally try to satisfy the other's needs.
5. \_\_\_\_ I try to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to us.
6. \_\_\_\_ I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with the other.
7. \_\_\_\_ I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.
8. \_\_\_\_ I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.
9. \_\_\_\_ I usually accommodate to the other's wishes.
10. \_\_\_\_ I try to integrate my ideas with the other's to come up with a decision jointly.
11. \_\_\_\_ I try to stay away from disagreement with the other.
12. \_\_\_\_ I use my expertise to make a decision that favors me.
13. \_\_\_\_ I propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.
14. \_\_\_\_ I give in to the other's wishes.
15. \_\_\_\_ I try to work with the other to find solutions which satisfy both our expectations.
16. \_\_\_\_ I try to keep my disagreement to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.
17. \_\_\_\_ I generally pursue my side of an issue.
18. \_\_\_\_ I negotiate with the other to reach a compromise.
19. \_\_\_\_ I often go with the other's suggestions.
20. \_\_\_\_ I exchange accurate information with the other so we can solve a problem together.
21. \_\_\_\_ I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other.
22. \_\_\_\_ I sometimes use my power to win.
23. \_\_\_\_ I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.
24. \_\_\_\_ I try to satisfy the other's expectations.
25. \_\_\_\_ I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved.

Scoring: Add up your scores on the following questions:

- |           |           |           |           |           |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1. _____  | 2. _____  | 3. _____  | 4. _____  | 5. _____  |
| 6. _____  | 7. _____  | 8. _____  | 9. _____  | 10. _____ |
| 11. _____ | 12. _____ | 13. _____ | 14. _____ | 15. _____ |
| 16. _____ | 17. _____ | 18. _____ | 19. _____ | 20. _____ |
| 21. _____ | 22. _____ | 23. _____ | 24. _____ | 25. _____ |

Avoidance  
Totals

Competition  
Totals

Compromise  
Totals

Accommodation  
Totals

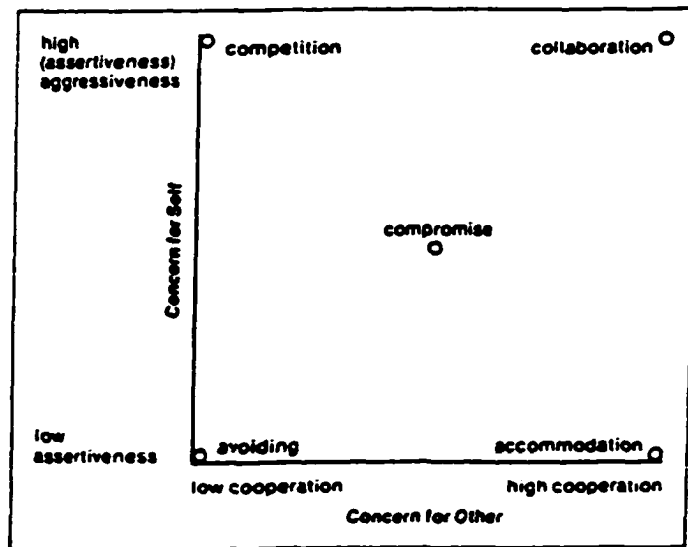
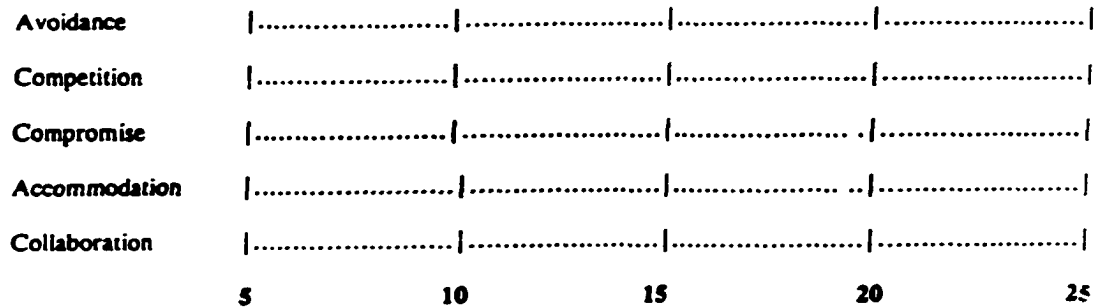
Collaboration  
Totals

From Wilmot, W. W., & Hocker, J. L., (1998). *Interpersonal Conflict*, fifth edition (pp. 112-141). Boston: McGraw-Hill. "My Styles" Conflict Styles Inventory used by permission.



On the grid below, place the following marks:

**X** = how you scored yourself



**Appendix C**  
**Organizational Culture Inventory**

**Letter of Agreement  
For Research Use of Organizational Culture Inventory**

Gail D. Becker  
2007 Woodbine Way  
Polson, MT 59860

Dear Ms. Becker:

I am pleased to inform you that you may use Human Synergistics' *Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI)* in your research.

Human Synergistics will provide you with up to 200 copies of the hand-scored version of the *OCI* for use in your research for \$1.50 per copy. All other costs associated with this project (e.g. postage, scoring, data analysis) will be incurred by you.

In exchange for the research discount that we are extending, you agree to the stipulations listed below:

1. Human Synergistics will receive two copies of all working papers, presentations, reports to sponsors and manuscripts to be submitted for publication which present *OCI* results;
2. Human Synergistics will receive a copy of the data collected through the use of the inventories as soon as such data become available. Researchers can submit either the *OCI* scoring sheets or a raw data file (ASCII file) on diskette. (These data will be added to Human Synergistics' data base and will be used only for purposes of checking the norms, reliability, and validity of the inventory. Confidentiality of the data will be maintained.);
3. Researchers may not reproduce any of the *OCI* items in their manuscripts;
4. The following citation must be included in your manuscript where the *OCI* circumplex is displayed: Copyright 1989 by Human Synergistics, Inc. Reproduced by permission;
5. The following citation must be included in your manuscript where the *OCI* style descriptions are discussed or reproduced: From *Organizational Culture Inventory* by R.A. Cooke and J.C. Lafferty, 1983, 1986, 1987, 1989, Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics. Copyright 1989 by Human Synergistics, Inc. Adapted by permission; and
6. Human Synergistics is not responsible for scoring, technical advice or analyses pertaining to investigator(s) research.

March 6, 2000  
Human Synergistics/Center for Applied Research, Inc.  
216 Campus Drive, #102, Arlington Heights, IL 60004 USA  
Tel 847-590-0995; Fax 847-590-0997; Email [info@hscar.com](mailto:info@hscar.com)

If the terms outlined in this letter are agreeable to you, please sign, where indicated below, and return to me.

Please contact me if you have any questions. Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,



Robert A. Cooke, Ph.D.  
Director  
Human Synergistics/Center for Applied Research, Inc.

I agree to the terms stated in this letter:

Gail D. Becker 3-6-00  
signature and date

Gail D. Becker  
print name

The University of Montana  
name of organization or university

Missoula, MT 59812-1053

Dept. of Educ. Leadership

School of Education  
address

406. 883. 1079  
telephone

gdbecker@digisys.net  
e-mail address

March 6, 2000  
Human Synergistics/Center for Applied Research, Inc.  
216 Campus Drive, #102, Arlington Heights, IL 60004 USA  
Tel 847-590-0995; Fax 847-590-0997; Email info@hacar.com

## ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE PROFILE

The culture of your organization is reflected in the shared values and beliefs that guide the thinking and behavior of members. While the prevailing culture can be somewhat subtle and abstract, it nevertheless sets patterns for the activities of the organization and the personal styles exhibited by members. These styles can range from cooperative and achievement-oriented in constructive cultures to competitive and dependent in defensive cultures.

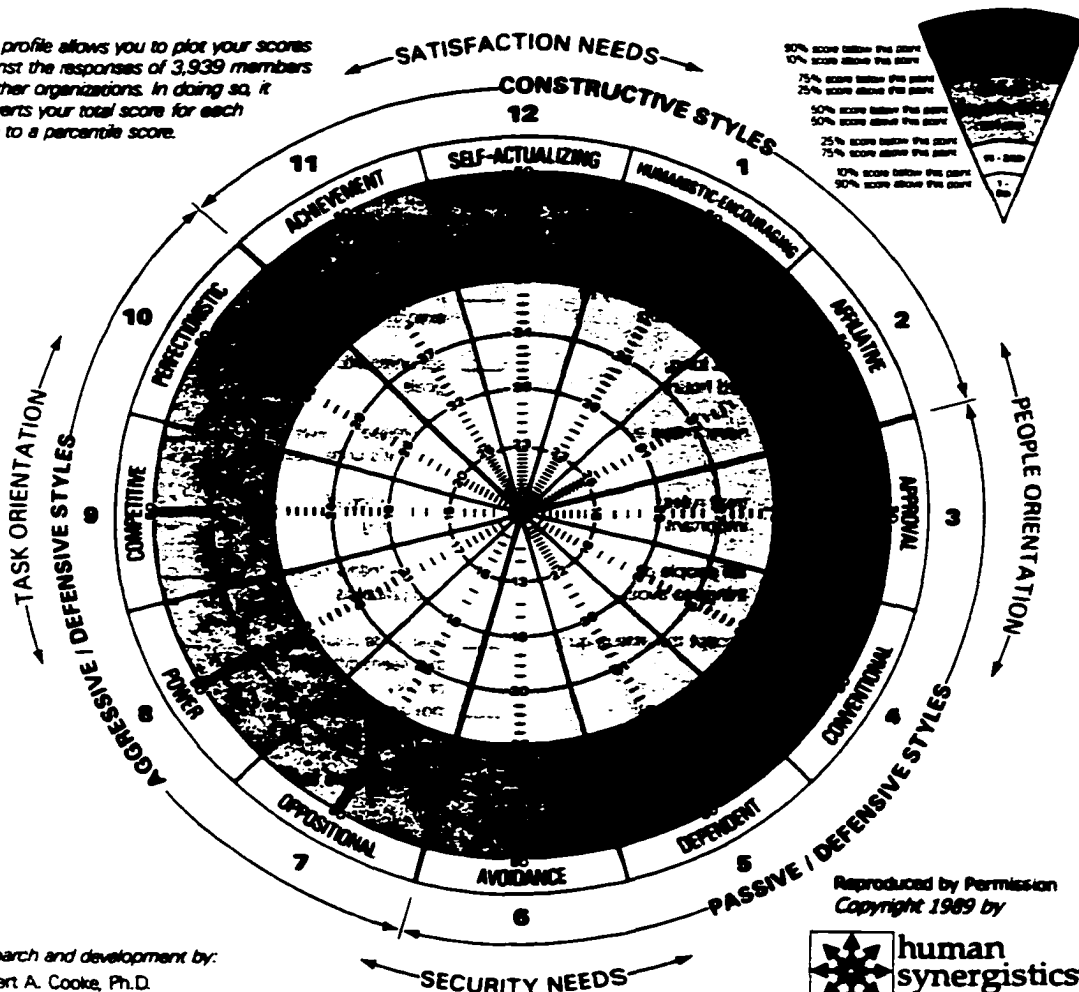
This inventory provides a point-in-time picture of the culture of your organization. It focuses on how members believe they should interact with one another in carrying out their work and meeting the expectations of superiors. Plotting your TOTAL scores on the Cultural Profile below provides you with a summary of your impressions of what's expected in your organization.

The cultural styles at the top of the profile promote the satisfaction needs of members and behaviors that enable them to fulfill those needs (e.g.,

needs for achievement and affiliation). The styles toward the bottom promote *security* needs and require self-protective behaviors associated with those needs (e.g., acceptance, avoiding failure). The cultural styles on the right side of the profile promote expectations for people-oriented behaviors; those on the left side are more task-oriented.

Based on these distinctions, your organization can be analyzed in terms of three general types of cultures. In organizations with *Constructive* cultures, members are encouraged to interact with others and approach tasks in ways that will help them meet their higher-order needs (11 o'clock through 2 o'clock). In those with *Passive/Defensive* cultures, members believe they must interact with others in defensive ways that will not threaten their own security (3 o'clock through 6 o'clock). In *Aggressive/Defensive* cultures, members are expected to approach their work in forceful ways to protect their status and position (7 o'clock through 10 o'clock). The behaviors promoted by these defensive cultures generally are less effective than those encouraged by a constructive culture.

This profile allows you to plot your scores against the responses of 3,939 members of other organizations. In doing so, it converts your total score for each style to a percentile score.



## THE CULTURE STYLES

The 12 cultural styles measured by this inventory are described below in terms of the behaviors they promote and their impact on organizations and their members. More detailed explanations will be provided by your consultant or facilitator and can be found in the *Leader's Guide for the Organizational Culture Inventory*.

### CONSTRUCTIVE STYLES

(Styles Promoting Satisfaction Behaviors)

(11:00) **An Achievement culture** characterizes organizations that do things well and value members who set and accomplish their own goals. Members of these organizations set challenging but realistic goals, establish plans to reach these goals, and pursue them with enthusiasm. Achievement organizations are effective; problems are solved appropriately, clients and customers are served well, and the orientation of members (as well as the organization itself) is healthy.

(12:00) **A Self-Actualizing culture** characterizes organizations that value creativity, quality over quantity, and both task accomplishment and individual growth. Members of these organizations are encouraged to gain enjoyment from their work, develop themselves, and take on new and interesting activities. While self-actualizing organizations can be somewhat difficult to understand and control, they tend to be innovative, offer high-quality products and/or services, and attract and develop outstanding employees.

(1:00) **A Humanistic-Encouraging culture** characterizes organizations that are managed in a participative and person-centered way. Members are expected to be supportive, constructive, and open to influence in their dealings with one another. A humanistic culture leads to effective organizational performance by providing for the growth and active involvement of members who, in turn, report high satisfaction with and commitment to the organization.

(2:00) **An Affiliative culture** characterizes organizations that place a high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships. Members are expected to be friendly, open, and sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group. An affiliative culture can enhance organizational performance by promoting open communication, good cooperation, and the effective coordination of activities. Members are loyal to their work groups and feel they "fit in" comfortably.

### PASSIVE/DEFENSIVE STYLES

(Styles Promoting People/Security Behaviors)

(3:00) **An Approval culture** describes organizations in which conflicts are avoided and interpersonal relationships are pleasant — at least superficially. Members feel that they must agree with, gain the approval of, and be liked by others. Though possibly benign, this type of work environment can limit organizational effectiveness by minimizing constructive "differing" and the expression of ideas and opinions.

(4:00) **A Conventional culture** is descriptive of organizations that are conservative, traditional, and bureaucratically controlled. Members are expected to conform, follow the rules, and make a good impression. Too conventional a culture can interfere with effectiveness by suppressing innovation and preventing the organization from adapting to changes in its environment.

(5:00) **A Dependent culture** is descriptive of organizations that are hierarchically controlled and non-participative. Centralized decision making in such organizations leads members to do only what they're told and to clear all decisions with superiors. Poor performance results from the lack of individual initiative, spontaneity, flexibility, and timely decision making.

(6:00) **An Avoidance culture** characterizes organizations that fail to reward success but nevertheless punish mistakes. This negative reward system leads members to shift responsibilities to others and to avoid any possibility of being blamed for a mistake. The survival of this type of organization is in question since members are unwilling to make decisions, take action, or accept risks.

### AGGRESSIVE/DEFENSIVE STYLES

(Styles Promoting Task/Security Behaviors)

(7:00) **An Oppositional culture** describes organizations in which confrontation prevails and negativism is rewarded. Members gain status and influence by being critical and thus are reinforced to oppose the ideas of others and to make safe (but ineffectual) decisions. While some questioning is functional, a highly oppositional culture can lead to unnecessary conflict, poor group problem solving, and "watered-down" solutions to problems.

(8:00) **A Power culture** is descriptive of non-participative organizations structured on the basis of the authority inherent in members' positions. Members believe they will be rewarded for taking charge and controlling subordinates (and being responsive to the demands of superiors). Power-oriented organizations are less effective than their members might think; subordinates resist this type of control, hold back information, and reduce their contributions to the minimal acceptable level.

(9:00) **A Competitive culture** is one in which winning is valued and members are rewarded for out-performing one another. People in such organizations operate in a "win-lose" framework and believe they must work against (rather than with) their peers to be noticed. An overly competitive culture can inhibit effectiveness by reducing cooperation and promoting unrealistic standards of performance (either too high or too low).

(10:00) **A Perfectionistic culture** characterizes organizations in which perfectionism, persistence, and hard work are valued. Members feel they must avoid all mistakes, keep track of everything, and work long hours to attain narrowly-defined objectives. While some amount of this orientation might be useful, too much emphasis on perfectionism can lead members to lose sight of the goal, get lost in details, and develop symptoms of strain.

From *Organizational Culture Inventory* by R.A. Cooke and J.C. Lafferty, 1983, 1986, 1987, 1989, Plymouth, MI: Human Synergetics. Copyright 1989 by Human Synergetics, Inc. Adapted by permission.

**Appendix D**  
**Letters of Permission**

---

---

## Centennial Elementary School

---

---

Bob Farris, Principal  
815 Burrell Avenue • Lewiston, ID 83501 • (208) 743-4240

March 14, 2000

Gail Becker has my permission to conduct a survey of the teachers at Centennial related to school improvement efforts.

*Bob Farris*

Bob Farris



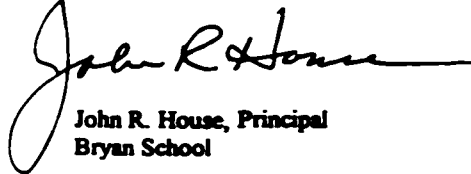
**Bryan** ELEMENTARY      John House      Shellye Howard      Jane Fitzmorris  
Principal      Counselor      Office Manager

March 16, 2000

To Whom It May Concern:

I give my permission for Gail Becker to survey the staff at Bryan School.

Thank you.

  
John R. House, Principal  
Bryan School

208-664-3237  
802 HARRISON AVE.  
COEUR D'ALENE, ID 83814

# McSorley Elementary

2020 15th Street  
Lewiston, Idaho 83501  
(208) 743-7352

*Lynette Dancoes, Principal*

*Fran McNeill, Secretary*

March 20, 2000

Gail Decker  
Woodvine Drive  
Polson, MT 58860

To Whom It may Concern:

Gail Decker had my permission to administer surveys for the purpose of her research.

Sincerely

*Lynette K. Dancoes*  
Lynette Dancoes  
principal

■  
■  
■



## Joint School District No. 8

Box 37 Arlee, Montana 59821-0037 (406) 726-3216 Fax (406) 726-3940  
Accessible Responsive Learning Environment for Excellence



March 9, 2000

Ms. Gail D. Becker  
2007 Woodbine Way  
Polson, MT 59860

Dear Ms. Becker,

I have spoken to Mr. Headley and the School Board to let them know about your research project. I am providing a time and place and granting you permission to speak to the teachers about doing the survey which is part of the research project. Their participation is voluntary and confidential.

Sincerely,

Nancy Terwilliger-Grube

Arlee Elementary Principal



## SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. 28

P.O. Box 400 • St. Ignatius, Montana 59865-0400

District Office (408) 745-4420  
Elementary Office (408) 745-2871  
High School Office (408) 745-3811  
FAX (408) 745-4421

March 27, 2000

To Whom It May Concern:

Gail Becker has permission to survey teachers at St. Ignatius Elementary School for the purpose of research being conducted through the University of Montana.

Sincerely,

David T. Werdin  
Elementary Principal

**Gail Becker**

---

**From:** Elaine Meeks  
**Sent:** Monday, February 14, 2000 10:46 AM  
**To:** Gail Becker  
**Subject:** Doctoral study

Dear Gail,

You have my permission to visit Cherry Valley school on a prearranged day for the purpose of surveying myself and 16 teachers for purposes of research for your doctoral study.

Sincerely,

Elaine Meeks, Principal  
Cherry Valley Elementary School



February 11, 2000

Gail Becker, Principal  
Linderman School  
Polson, MT 59860

Dear Gail,

Yes, you have my permission to conduct your survey of teachers employed in Cherry Valley School. Good luck.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "D. Haugen".

Daniel N. Haugen  
Superintendent



**Emerson Elementary School**

1103 Pine  
Snohomish, WA 98290

Maureen Cornwell , Principal 360-563-7150

April 20, 2000

To Whom It May Concern:

Gail Becker has my permission to conduct research with my staff.

*Maureen Cornwell*

Maureen Cornwell  
Principal

MC:jw



**TOTEM FALLS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL • Nancy Whitson, Principal**  
14211 Snohomish-Cascade Dr. • Snohomish, WA 98296 • 360.563-4750 Fax 360.563-4756

---

April 1, 2000

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:**

This letter is to verify that I have given permission for Gail Becker to survey sixteen of the teachers at Totem Falls Elementary School and to use the results of their surveys in her doctoral work. She is using two surveys...The Organizational Culture Inventory from Human Synergistics International and "My Styles" Conflict Styles Inventory from Wilmot and Hocker. These surveys will be administered on Wednesday, April 12.

If you have further questions, please feel free to contact me. Thank you.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Nancy Whitson".

Nancy Whitson  
Principal

*An Affirmative Action Equal Opportunity Employer*



# Birchwood Elementary School

**Principal**  
**Dr. Sharon Camblin**  
**Superintendent**  
**Dr. Dale E. Kinley**

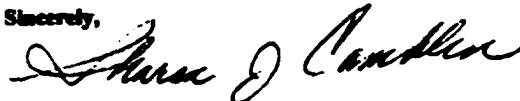
**May 1, 2000**

**Dear Ms. Becker,**

**The Birchwood Elementary staff and I give our permission to have the following surveys used as part of your dissertation research.**

**Organizational Culture Inventory  
Appendix B – My Styles**

**Sincerely,**



**Sharon J. Camblin, Ed. D.  
Principal**

**Birchwood Elementary School**  
**3200 Firwood Avenue, Bellingham, WA 98225-1436 • Phone: 360-676-6466**



## References

- Alfonso, R. J. (1986). The unseen supervisor: Organization and culture as determinants of teacher behavior. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Research Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Argyris, C. (1958). Some problems in conceptualizing organizational climate: A case study of a bank. Administrative Science Quarterly, 2, 501-520.
- Babbie, E. R. (1973). Survey Research Methods. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Baker, W., Costa, A. L., & Shalit, S. (1997). The norms of collaboration: Attaining communicative competence. In A. L. Costa & R. M. Liebmann (Eds.), The process-centered school: Sustaining a renaissance community. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin-Press.
- Borisoff, D., & Victor, D. A. (1989). Conflict management: A communication skills approach. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bower, M. (1966). The will to manage. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Boyer, E. L. (1995). The basic school: A community for learning. Princeton, NJ: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- Bramson, R. M. (1981). Coping with difficult people. New York: Anchor Books, Doubleday.
- Burnham, J., & Hord, G. (Eds.). (1993). Toward quality in education: The leader's odyssey. National LEADership Network Study Group on Restructuring Schools. (ED/Office of Educational Research and Improvement 93-1). Alexandria, VA: NAESP.
- Caine, R. N. & Caine, G. (1997). Unleashing the power of perceptual change: The potential of brain-based teaching. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Cohen, A. R., Fink, S. L., Gadon, H., & Willits, R. D. (1984). Effective behavior in organizations. (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin.

Cooke, R. A., & Lafferty, J. C. (1989). Organizational culture inventory. Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics, Inc.

Cooke, R. A., & Szumal, J. L. (1993). Measuring normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations in organizations: The reliability and validity of the organizational culture inventory. Psychological reports, 72, 1299-1330. Chicago, IL: University of Illinois at Chicago.

Cooke, R. A., & Szumal, J. L. (July, 1999). Validating organizational performance issues with a quantitative approach. The consultants communicator: An educational resource for consulting professionals, 2 (3), 1-3. Arlington Heights, IL: Human Synergistics/Center for Applied research, Inc.

Costa, A. L., & Garmston, R. (1994). Cognitive coaching: A foundation for renaissance schools. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.

Costa, A. L., & Liebmann, R. M. (Eds.). (1997). The process-centered school: Sustaining a renaissance community. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press

Creswell, J.W. (1994). Research design: Qualitative & quantitative approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Deal, T. E. (1993). The culture of schools. In M. Sashkin, & H. J. Walberg (Eds.), Educational leadership and school culture (pp. 3-18). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (1982). Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1993). Strategies for building school cultures: Principals as symbolic leaders. In M. Sashkin, & H. J. Walberg, (Eds.), Educational leadership and school culture (pp. 89-99). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1999). Shaping school culture: The heart of leadership. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

DuFour, R. & Eaker, R. (1998). Professional learning communities at work: Best practices for enhancing student achievement. Bloomington, IN: National Education Service.

Dugger, J. (1992). Learn to listen: How to tune in before someone tunes you out. Shawnee Mission, KS: National Press Publications, A Division of Rockhurst College Continuing Education Center, Inc.

Evans, R. (1996). The human side of school change: Reform, resistance, and the real-life problems of innovation. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fisher, R. & Brown, S. of the Harvard Negotiation Project, (1988). Getting together: Building relationships as we negotiate. New York, NY: Penguin Books.

Fritz, R. (1989). The path of least resistance. New York, NY: Fawcett Columbine.

Fullan, M. (1993). Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform. Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Fullan, M. (1997). Emotion and hope: Constructive concepts for complex times. In A. Hargreaves (Ed.), 1997 ASCD yearbook: Rethinking educational change with heart and mind (pp. 216-233). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1996). What's worth fighting for in your school? (Revised 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M., with Stiegelhauer, S. (1991). The new meaning of educational change. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Garmston, R. J. & Wellman, B. M. (1999). The adaptive school: A sourcebook for developing collaborative groups. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.

Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ. New York: Bantam Books.

Halpin, A. W. & Croft, D. B. (1963). The organizational climate of schools. Chicago, IL: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago.

Hansen, M. J., & Childs, J. (1998). Creating a school where people like to be. Educational Leadership, 56 (1), 14-17.

Hargreaves, A. (1997). Rethinking educational change: Going deeper and wider in the quest for success. In A. Hargreaves (Ed.), 1997 ASCD yearbook: Rethinking educational change with heart and mind (pp. 1-26). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Henderson, N., & Milstein, M. M. (1996). Resiliency in schools: Making it happen for students and educators. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Hendricks, W. (1991). How to manage conflict: A practical guide to effective conflict management. Shawnee Mission, KS: National Press Publications, A Division of Rockhurst College Continuing Education Center, Inc.

Hirsh, S. (1996, October). Innovator Insights: Creating a healthy school culture is everyone's business. School Team Innovator, 2-3. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.

Hord, S. M., Rutherford, W.L., Huling-Austin, L., & Hall, G.E. (1987). Taking charge of change. Alexandria, VA: ASCD, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Kaiser, J. S. (1995). The 21<sup>st</sup> century principal. Mequon, WI: Stylex.

Kanpol, B. (1990). Empowerment: The institutional and cultural aspects for teachers and principals. NASSP Bulletin, 74, 104-07.

Keenan, D. (1984). A study to determine the relationship between organizational climates and management styles of conflict as perceived by teachers and principals in selected school districts. Dissertation Abstracts International, 45 11A. (University Microfilms No. AAG8429858).

Kilmann, R. H., & Thomas, K. W. (1975). Interpersonal conflict-handling behavior as reflections of Jungian personality dimensions. Psychological Reports, 37, 971-980.

Lawless, D. J. (1979). Organizational behavior: The psychology of effective management. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created "social climates." Journal of Social Psychology, 10, 271-299.

Lezotte, L.W. (1997). Learning for all. Okemos, MI: Effective Schools Products.

Likert, R., & Likert, J. G. (1976). New ways of managing conflict. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Little, J. W. (1990). The persistence of privacy: Autonomy and initiative in teachers' professional relations. Teachers College Record, 91 (4) 509-536.

- Litwin, G. H., & Stringer, R. A. (1968). Motivation and organizational climate. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School, Division of Research.
- Maehr, M.L., & Midgley, C. (1996). Transforming school cultures. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Maeroff, G. (March, 1993). Building teams to rebuild schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 74 (7) 512-519.
- Marshak, D. (1994). Developing a collaborative school culture (Report No. SP 035 631). Seattle, WA: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 377 187).
- McCaw, W. P. (1999). The Perception of Followers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Montana, Missoula, MT.
- Meyer, J., & Rowan, B. (1983). The structure of educational organizations. In J. V. Baldridge & T. E. Deal (Eds.), The dynamics of organizational change in education. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.
- Moscovici, H., & Alfaro-Varela, G. (1993). Collaborative efforts in the school culture. (Report No. EA025333). Atlanta, GA: Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 362 966).
- National Institute on Educational Governance, Finance, Policy Making, and Management. (1998). High performance learning communities: A new vision for American schools (GFI 98-9511). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Nias, J., Southworth, G., & Yeomans, R. (1989). Staff relationships in primary schools: A study of organizational cultures. London: Cassell.

Peterson, A. M. (1997). Aspects of school climate: A review of the literature. ERS Spectrum, 15, 36-42.

Peterson, K. D., & Brietzke, R. (1994). Building collaborative cultures: Seeking ways to reshape urban schools (Report No. NCREL – UD 030 266). Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 378 286).

Poole, W. (1991). Resistance to change in education: Themes in literature (Report No. IR014922) New York, NY: Syracuse University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 330 307).

Purkey, S.C., & Smith, M. S. (December, 1982). Too soon to cheer? Educational Leadership, 40 (3) 64-69.

Rahim, A. M. (1983). Rahim organizational conflict inventories. Experimental edition: Professional manual. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Rahim, A. M. (1986). Managing conflict in organizations. New York, NY: Praeger Publishers.

Reichers, A. E., & Schneider, B. (1990). Climate and culture: An evolution of constructs. In B. Schneider, (Ed.), Organizational climate and culture (pp. 5-39). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Rogers, E. M. (1983). Diffusion of innovations (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.

Rosenholtz, S. J. (1989). Teachers workplace: The social organization of schools. NY: Longman.



Rousseau, D. M. (1990). Assessing organizational culture: The case for multiple methods. In B. Schneider, (Ed.), Organizational climate and culture (pp. 153-192). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Saphier, J. & King, M. (1985). Good seeds grow in strong cultures. Educational Leadership, 42 (6), 67-74.

Sarason, S. B. (1982). The culture of the school and the problem of change (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Schein, E. H. (1992). Organizational culture and leadership (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. (1999). How to set the stage for a change in organizational culture. In P. Senge, A. Kleiner, C. Roberts, R. Ross, G. Roth, & B. Smith, (Eds.), The dance of change: The challenges of sustaining momentum in learning organizations (pp. 334-5). New York, NY: Doubleday.

Schilling, K. J. (1988). The relationship among the conflict management styles utilized by the elementary school administrators, the organizational climate of an elementary school, and the pupil control orientation of the elementary teachers. Dissertation Abstracts International, 49 06A. (University Microfilms No. AAG8811242).

Schmoker, M. (1996). Results: The key to continuous school improvement. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Senge, P. (1990). The fifth discipline. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Senge, P. (1999). The leadership of profound change: Toward an ecology of leadership. In P. Senge, A. Kleiner, C. Roberts, R. Ross, G. Roth, & B. Smith (Eds.), The

dance of change: The challenges of sustaining momentum in learning organizations

(pp. 10-21). New York, NY: Doubleday.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1991). The principalship: A reflective practice perspective.

(2<sup>nd</sup> ed). Newton, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Sergiovanni, T. (1996). Leadership for the schoolhouse: How is it different? Why is it important? San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Seyfarth, J. T. (1996). Personnel management for effective schools. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).

Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Siress, R. H., with Riddle, C., & Shouse, D. (1994). Working woman's communications survival guide: How to present your ideas with impact, clarity and power and get the recognition you deserve. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Smey-Richman, B. (1991). School climate and restructuring for low-achieving students. Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools, Inc.

Smey-Richman, B. & Barkley, W. W. (1990). School climate resource document: Resources, strategies, and programs for low-achieving students. Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools, Inc.

Smircich, L. (1983). Concepts of culture and organizational analysis. Administrative Science Quarterly, 28 (3) 339-358.

Sparks, D., & Hirsh, S. (1997). A new vision for staff development. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Stewart, D., Prebble, T., & Duncan, P. (1997). The reflective principal: leading the school development process. Katonah, NY: Richard C. Owen.

Swidler, A. (1979). Organization without authority. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Tagiuri, R. (1968). The concept of organizational climate. In R. Tagiuri & G. H. Litwin (Eds.), Organizational climate: Exploration of a concept (pp. 11-32). Boston, MA: Harvard University, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration.

Thomas, K. W., & Kilmann, R. H. (1974). Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument. Tuxedo, NY: Xicom.

Thompson, K. R., & Luthans, F. (1990). Organizational culture: A behavioral perspective. In B. Schneider (Ed.), Organizational climate and culture. (pp. 319-344). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Uhl, S. C., & Squires, S. E. (1994). Enhancing systemic change through effective collaboration: A formative perspective and approach to collaboration. (Report No. EA025938). New Orleans, LA: Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 372 467).

Victor, B., Cullen, J., & Boynton, A. (1993). Toward a general framework of organizational meaning systems. In C. Conrad, (Ed.), Ethical Nexus (pp. 193-215). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Waller, W., (1932). The sociology of teaching. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Wheatley, M. J. (1994). Leadership and the new science: Learning about organization from an orderly universe. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Wilmot, W., & Hocker, J. (1998). Interpersonal conflict (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Yarbrough, E., & Wilmot, W. (1995). Artful mediation: Constructive conflict at work. Boulder, CO: Cairns Publishing.